

# The Bulletin

OF THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF

## Secondary-School Principals

JUN -2 1952

### Public Address In The Secondary School

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**T**HIS issue has been prepared by a special committee of the Speech Association of America. The National Association of Secondary-School Principals hopes that it together with the previous companion issue entitled "Speech Education For All American Youth" (Bulletin No. 151), "Dramatics in the Secondary School" (Bulletin No. 166), and "Speech and Hearing Problems in the Secondary School" (Bulletin No. 173) will serve to give principals and teachers a clearer understanding of the various aspects of the speech program. Since every individual needs to develop skills and techniques in speech, this issue should provide suggestions for competent instruction in speech education so that all school youth may realize the full values of the latent competencies and interest they possess.

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SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS  
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1952-53

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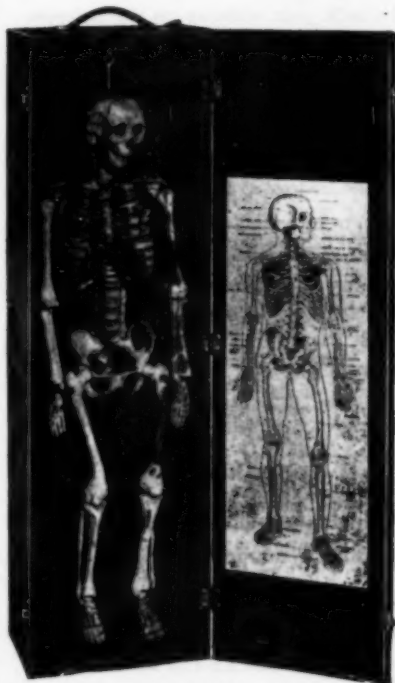
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Quite frequently, members write us that they have not received the last two or three issues of the BULLETIN. The reason—they have changed their address, but did not notify us. We are not mind readers, so we have to depend upon our members to inform us promptly of any change in their address. Then, too, printing has become so costly that we are unable to supply duplicate copies (or back copies) without a charge.

Many members change positions during the summer months. When this is the case, notification sent to us promptly will mean that when we mail the first issue of the BULLETIN next October, every member will receive his BULLETIN at his proper address.

*This is an earnest appeal!*

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**And also, just a reminder.**

You will want your correct address and name to appear in the new Directory—January 1953.

We're depending on you!

# **PUBLIC ADDRESS IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOL**

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**Prepared under the  
Editorial Supervision of  
The Speech Association of America**

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**KENNETH G. HANCE**

**Assistant Dean of the School of Speech  
Northwestern University, Evanston, Illinois  
Chairman of the Planning Committee  
and of the General Committee**

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This issue of THE BULLETIN is one of the series of special issues on Speech and Dramatic Art. Earlier issues in the series include: BULLETIN No. 151, "Speech Education for All American Youth"; BULLETIN No. 166, "Dramatics in the Secondary School"; and BULLETIN No. 173, "Speech and Hearing Problems in the Secondary School."

*Attention!*

## Secondary-School Principals

Your next convention will be in the new Statler Hotel in Los Angeles, California, February 21-25, 1953.

Make your plans now to attend. It promises to be the greatest convention ever, and every principal can benefit by being in Southern California sunshine next February.



Special trips at special prices will be announced next fall to include Grand Canyon, San Francisco, Portland, Salt Lake City, and the Convention.

You will receive a hotel reservation blank by direct mail by May 10. Make your convention reservation then *but not before*.

See that your budget for 1952-1953 will include you in Los Angeles, February 21-25, 1953. You will have the time of your life. Plan for it now.

**HAROLD BROOKS, *President***

National Association of Secondary School Principals  
Principal, Benjamin Franklin Jr. High School  
Long Beach, California

**PAUL E. ELICKER, *Executive Secretary***

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# The Bulletin

## OF THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF Secondary-School Principals

A Department of Secondary Education of the  
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## THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

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PAUL E. ELICKER, Editor

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## Foreword

THE most effective means of communicating with others is through the skills and techniques developed by carefully planned and administered instruction in speech. Especially in a democratic society, every individual needs this type of education to rise to the full potentiality of his inherent resources and capabilities and to be the best possible participant in the important business of being an articulate citizen. All school youth should have competent instruction in speech education to realize the full value of the latent competencies and interests which they possess.

This special issue of THE BULLETIN was prepared as the fourth of a series of co-operative enterprises between the National Association of Secondary-School Principals and the Speech Association of America, the executive headquarters of which are at the State University of Iowa, Iowa City, Iowa. The focus of this issue is upon those aspects of speech which are commonly called "public speaking" (discussion, debate, public speaking, extemporaneous speaking, and oratory) as distinguished from theatre, radio, interpretative reading, and speech correction.

To all who have prepared these articles on the many phases and aspects of speech education, we, the chief administrative officers of secondary schools, are deeply indebted for this practical presentation of a very important area of learning—Speech Education.

Paul E. Elicker, *Editor*, National Association  
of Secondary-School Principals

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\*Members of the Planning Committee.

# PART I—INTRODUCTION

## CHAPTER I

### A Program of Speech Education

#### PART ONE: POINT OF VIEW

##### I. INTRODUCTION

A SPEECH teacher of ancient Rome once observed that God had distinguished man from all other creatures by no other means so powerfully as by the gift of speech. A modern novelist has declared that all life comes back to the question of our speech, the means by which we communicate with one another. If the observations of the ancient teacher and the modern novelist are sound—and most thoughtful persons agree that they are—then education for the effective use of speech is paramount for the individual and for his culture.

Speech education is determined by fundamental facts representing some of the contributions made by students of psychology, linguistics, sociology, political science, and communication, as well as by speech scientists. The basic facts are few; taken together they support a philosophy of speech education.

##### II. THE BASIC FACTS OF SPEECH

###### 1. *Speech is learned, not inherited*

Speech becomes so much second nature that men sometimes regard it as a physical inheritance like eyes or hands or feet. But every member of the human race has to acquire his speech; he brings none of

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This statement concerning speech education is presented officially by the Speech Association of America. The committee which was appointed by the Executive Council of the Speech Association of America to prepare this statement included the following persons: JAMES H. MCBURNEY, *Chairman of the Committee*, Dean of the School of Speech, Northwestern University; BOWER ALY, Editor of the *Quarterly Journal of Speech*, and Professor of Speech, University of Missouri; ORVILLE A. HITCHCOCK, Executive Secretary of the Speech Association of America, and Professor of Speech, State University of Iowa; LOREN D. REID, Professor of Speech, University of Missouri; and KARL R. WALLACE, Head of the Department of Speech, University of Illinois. Messrs. Aly and Wallace were primarily responsible for the formulation of this statement.

In presenting this statement, the Speech Association of America is aware that in part it applies also to written communication. Taken as a whole, however, the statement stands for the special values that speech education can make to the personal and social development of youth in a democratic society whose vocational, professional, civic, and cultural values are realized in everyday communication through speaking and listening.

it with him. A significant part of this tremendous feat of learning is accomplished by most people before the age of six, *i.e.*, before school age.

### 2. *Speech is complicated*

Considering the hindrances to the creation and communication of a single thought, human beings may marvel that they understand each other even as well as they do. One reason for the complexity of speech is that no single *organ* of speech exists. The eye sees, the ear hears. What *organ* speaks? Not the tongue, for all the poet's metaphor. Not the lungs alone, nor the larynx, nor the brain, though all are involved. Speech is a secondary function of many organs, each of which has a more pressing vital function—the throat is used in speaking, but its chief function is swallowing; the lungs supply the column of air for speaking, but only as an incident to maintaining the breath of life; the ear has an important function in speech, but its primary obligation is to hear. In a sense, the whole human body is involved in every act of speech.

Language behavior is virtually equivalent to thinking behavior. Although language may be of different kinds—such as the language of mathematics and of music—the language of words is universal. Accordingly, whatever improves the use of language improves the individual's ability to think. Education is always interested in the development of thinking. One way to develop thinking is to develop speech. Through planned experience in speaking comes growth in thought and speech.

### 3. *The act of speech is unified*

Whereas the human being has certain senses for inward impression—such as sight, taste, touch, smell, and hearing—he has, in an overwhelming number of life situations, the single means of speech for outward expression.

The human being is most human when using language. Unlike other animals, man can use speech to point to objects and events not immediately present to him and to others; he can talk and reason about his past and plan for his future, and for such purposes he has developed a grammar, a rhetoric, and a logic. Education is always deeply concerned with humanity and with personal adjustments peculiar and proper to the human being. In seeking to develop effective use of speech, education is meeting man on his most human level, for speech and thought are so interdependent that no one is likely ever to make a clear distinction between them. In the human and social sense, the mind is made of language; and for nearly everyone the major language is the speech learned in childhood.

#### 4. *The requirements of speech vary in differing cultures*

In the simple culture of rural America in 1850, personal anomalies of speech created relatively simple problems. The Illinois farmer in 1850, for example, probably did not require ten per cent as much speaking as most citizens of Chicago do today. If the farmer chanced to have an impediment in his speech, personal consequences might or might not have been unfortunate; but the social and vocational results were not highly significant. The geometric progression of complexities in modern life has magnified the importance of ready speech for every active member of our society and at the same time has placed heavy stresses upon the channels of communication. In a complex urban culture, the man who cannot speak well is often handicapped just as surely as the man who cannot hear well: often they are the same person. In a great city, a man who is ill in his speech may be just as unemployable as one who is deficient in vision.

Realizing all that is involved in the creation and communication of thought in our increasingly complex culture, responsible Americans should consider means of helping those persons whose physical basis for speech is inadequate but perhaps remediable. In an era when every man counts, effectual measures should be taken to redeem the speech handicapped.

### III. SPEECH AND THE CITIZEN

What of the great body of people whose speech is acceptable? What do they require of speech, and what is required of them?

The stresses of the times and the need for easy communication are present for those of normal speech just as they are for the handicapped. The grouping of people in cities, the developments in the technology of communication, the impact of the moving picture, radio, and television on American culture, and the necessities of modern production merely suggest the ways in which speech problems have multiplied. The problems of communication have not merely increased in number; they have developed to unprecedented intensity. With the coming of radio and television, language has entered into a new age; speech has been given a fourth dimension whose potential can hardly be estimated. Apparently more people must talk and more must listen today than ever before, not only because there are more people but also because they have more problems—and because they live closer together. In the union hall, in the board meeting, and in the council chamber; in consultation, in conference, and in negotiation; from the pulpit, from the platform, and from the radio and the television set, talking goes on to one listener or a million. Arguments are developed,

appeals are made, propaganda is insinuated into the minds and spirits of the people. How do they respond?

Communication makes possible group living; and speech, as the chief means of communication, is the universal instrument of social co-operation and co-ordination. From the most ordinary conversation to the most complex political discussion, speech is used more often and more widely than any other means of communication. The world of today is for most persons a speaking and listening world. It is a world, furthermore, that the great majority of youth must learn to live in without the privilege of higher education. Youth, then, must have mouths that speak and ears that hear. "Without speech I can exist," said the sage, "but I cannot live."

Speech appropriate to group living is characteristic of the individual who gets along well with others. Personality traits and attitudes seem to be most often revealed in speech, and significant development in speech is usually accompanied by significant gains in personality. Successful communication depends upon the understanding, respect, tolerance, and sympathy which speaker and hearer have for each other. Accordingly, certain attitudes should become intimately associated with speech and speaking situations. They are the attitudes of helpfulness, co-operation, tolerance, inquiry, concession, admission, self-reliance, honesty, and conviction. Although some of these may appear more sharply in one speaking experience than in another, they are the attitudinal bases of informal speech and group discussion, of dramatics and the oral interpretation of literature, and of public speaking and debate. In speaking, as in any other learning experiences, such attitudes should be rewarded and re-enforced, and antisocial attitudes, such as belligerence and egotism, should go unrewarded.

In a free society, the welfare of all the citizens depends ultimately upon public opinion. If they do not have the ability to form wise judgments on the basis of information and arguments presented to them, then the wise and the unwise will suffer together the consequences of their mutual failure to present and to comprehend wise courses of action. That men should be able rightly to conceive policies, effectively to communicate them, and readily to understand them is a matter of first importance.

If we are not to be deluded by the fraud that government by decree is safer than government by discussion and debate, then all our people must be made increasingly able to participate effectively in public affairs—in the union, in the church, in the corporation, in the legislative assembly, and in the Congress. A citizenry able to differentiate between sound and fallacious reasoning, to distinguish between accept-

able and shoddy evidence, to tell an honest speaker from a verbal swindler—this is the minimum essential for the survival of a free and responsible society in a chaotic world.

#### IV. SPEECH AND THE LEADER

In *The American Commonwealth*, Lord Bryce set forth the ideal that every citizen in a free country should be able to formulate his opinions on public policies and to defend those opinions with arguments. Bryce readily admitted that in practice perhaps not more than one voter in twenty is so ideally equipped. The nineteen lack the ability or the information to deal with the issues of the day; or they have become so engrossed with private affairs that they have no time for public business. But if the twentieth man has the time, the energy, and the ability to state the right propositions in the right way, the nineteen may be able to reach the right conclusions.

What is the usefulness of speech to the twentieth man, the leader in the enterprises of labor, industry, and government? The leader in any group not dependent immediately on force must employ the twin arts of discourse—discussion and debate. *Discussion, chiefly a method of inquiry, is a way groups of people learn; it is a means of discovering alternatives. Debate, chiefly a method of advocacy, is a way groups of people develop alternatives.* As experience demonstrates, when the arts of discourse are corrupted, when the channels of communication are clogged, men resort to violence as the final arbiter. Doubtless that is one reason why the founders of the American Republic set so many safeguards around the right to speak and the correlative right to listen. For the right to make inquiry (*i.e.*, to discuss) and the right to advocate one's convictions (*i.e.*, to debate) are firmly fixed in the Constitution of the United States. The right to be heard by a jury is even older than the Constitution. At the heart of true citizenship in any organization—social, economic, or political—lies the right and the obligation to utter in the most effective possible way what one believes to be true.

The twentieth man, the leader, must perforce accept the obligation with special care and purpose. Upon his ability to explain, to clarify, and to advocate his judgments rests the welfare of his group and, in the long run, of his nation and his culture.

#### V. SPEECH AND THE SCHOOLS

The functions of the arts of speech in a democracy have been set forth because their state is critical. A generation ago John Dewey declared the essential need of the day to be "the improvement of the

methods and conditions of debate, discussion, and persuasion." The situation has not changed for the better. Systematic instruction in speech is one of the oldest and most significant of the tasks entrusted by the American people to the schools. Indeed the relation between the schools and instruction in discussion, debate, and persuasion is much older even than America. The earliest schools known to the Occident dealt with a problem essentially similar to the one current today: How can we make boys and girls more useful when they talk? The consequences of the neglect of speech education can be observed in the lack of social intelligence. Unless we heed Dewey's injunction to improve the methods and conditions of debate, discussion, and persuasion, we may find ourselves lacking the basis for a technological or any other culture. We have long lived without atomic science. Whether we can live with it in the dignity of freedom depends in large measure on our ability to solve our problems through the intelligent use of the spoken word.

Discussion and debate serve democracy, and in turn democracy preserves and fosters personal integrity that springs from freedom of speech. The interaction of discussion and freedom of speech preserves personal integrity—personal conviction. In our society any speaker is free to declare, in effect, "I am saying what I believe in the way that I think best for the good of all who hear me." In a tyrannical society, he *must* say, in effect, "I am saying what I am told to say in a way approved by the dictator for his benefit." The difference between these two statements marks the difference between personal integrity and the lack of it. To encourage and preserve discussion and debate as we know them is to preserve freedom of speech. To preserve freedom of speech is to preserve integrity in all social relationships in which communication makes a difference.

## **PART TWO: SPEECH AND GENERAL EDUCATION IN THE SCHOOLS**

In keeping with the values and goals of speech education expressed above, school programs should give all pupils opportunities to improve their speech through guided experience. The essential speech activities are part of a common learnings program. They are the universal means through which basic information is acquired and social adjustments made both in and beyond the school. Through them personal relationships are facilitated or hindered; through them individuals and groups within the school seek understanding, decision, and action.



## I. TESTS OF SPEECH AND HEARING

### 1. *Speaking*

Since difficulties in voice and articulation impede communication and are sometimes associated with social maladjustment, every pupil should know whether his voice and articulation are adequate. If his speech does not meet minimum standards, he is entitled to assistance.

Although judgments and informal tests can be made by any teacher of speech, diagnosis and training in remedial speech should be undertaken by or under the guidance of a qualified speech correctionist. In co-operation with medical and counseling services available in the school and community, the correctionist can undertake adequate diagnosis and prescribe proper therapy. The correctionist can often help pupils individually, and can sometimes aid other teachers to facilitate speech improvement in group situations. An increasing number of states have standards of certification for speech correction teachers. In addition, the American Speech and Hearing Association certifies the clinical competence of its members and carries on studies designed to improve the standards and education of speech clinicians.

### 2. *Hearing*

Since the ear guides the act of speaking, every student should know whether his hearing is normal; one who has a hearing loss damaging to the perception of his speech and that of others is entitled to appropriate help. Such diagnosis and help should require the co-operative services of medical and speech specialists. Simple hearing tests, such as large-scale screening tests required in many states, can locate pupils who need the attention and treatment of specialists. In many schools hearing is tested during the regular physical examination.

## II. SPEECH AND LEARNING SITUATIONS

### 1. *General Observations*

Speech is learned, not instinctive, behavior. Acquiring speech through trial-and-error and imitative methods in early life, most young people upon entrance to high school can communicate well enough to "get along" with their fellows. But if their speech is to develop appreciably beyond the minimum level, the guidance of good teachers is essential.

In the general curriculum the method of teaching may consist chiefly of planned experiences in which the practical speaking is emphasized and the knowledge of principles is subordinated, though not omitted.

Speaking experiences should be planned (a) to meet the needs of the pupil who may never have the opportunity to take a formal course

in speech, and (b) to meet the social, political, and economic needs of the individual in a democratic society in which he participates in his day-by-day living.

Experiences may be developed effectively within a core curriculum; invariably they should be adapted to the plan of general education in the school. Workable and progressive patterns of speaking experiences have proved valuable in general courses devoted to written and oral communication, general science, social science, and the language arts. Successful integration of speaking and listening with such courses requires the knowledge of a person trained in speech, who may function as a counselor and planner and often as participating teacher.

## 2. *Kinds of Experience in Speech*

The kinds of experiences recommended can best be suggested by reference to their immediate ends: (a) to make inquiry and to disclose information; (b) to ascertain the truth and advocate it; (c) to understand literature and interpret it; (d) to know the drama and participate in it; (e) to evaluate the dynamic powers of radio, television, and the motion picture, and to respond intelligently to them.

For each of the speaking experiences, a correlative listening experience exists which is not less important than speaking. The student who would obtain and disclose information must be willing to hear it. Anyone who would advocate should also listen. Whoever would interpret literature should be able to enjoy its presentation by others. Those who would really know the drama must be able to observe as well as act. Meaningful radio and television programs require the co-operation of the listener.

(a) *To make inquiry and disclose information.* Experiences in making inquiry and disclosing information can be found in interviews; introductions; reports; explanations of basic concepts (such as occur in economics, civics, science, literature, history); explanation of processes (how something is done or made, how a simple mechanism works, how a society or club operates, how bodily processes function, etc.); explanation of the causes of a social movement or phenomenon; conferences; biographic sketches; reading aloud of informative materials; job and vocational requirements.

Such endeavors in the school program encourage the gathering of information from persons, reading, and observation; habits of clear organization and presentation; building of a functional vocabulary; the experience of direct, two-way communication with

an audience of one's peers; the satisfaction of making useful contributions to others; listening with accuracy.

(b) *To ascertain the truth and advocate it.* Experience in discussion can be designed (1) to examine problems that spring out of general education materials and processes, and (2) to produce, express, explain, and support opinions, to develop a feeling for the attitudes necessary to making admissions, concessions, and compromises in order to reach group agreement, and to provide experience as participants and as leaders. Such discussion should help to build the attitudes essential for effective participation in democratic processes, to afford training in how to take part in and to conduct meetings, to follow the path of give-and-take talk, to arrive at the issues of a problem and to clarify them, to evaluate on-the-spot evidence and facts, and to develop respect for straight argument and logical reasoning.

Experiences in advocacy can be found in the organization and management of clubs, in the practice of parliamentary law, in the discussion of controversial issues, in the debating of live propositions, and in the extemporaneous, persuasive speech prompted by the *problems* growing out of general education courses and out of a speaker's *conviction* that he has a position to recommend to his hearers for acceptance.

Persuasive speaking holds certain personal and social values not directly associated with informative speaking: sense of *public responsibility* for one's views on controversial questions; personal integrity and confidence that springs from conviction and the successful presentation of the grounds of conviction.

(c) *To understand literature and interpret it.* Experiences in understanding literature and interpreting it can be provided only through good literature whose full meaning requires oral expression. The reading of prose and poetry aloud encourages full mental and emotional responsiveness to written symbols. Close and accurate observation of printed matter enlarges the spoken vocabulary and illustrates the satisfaction derived from communication which gives pleasure to others.

(d) *To know the drama and interpret it.* Experiences can consist of original dramatizations of significant events dealt with in the general curriculum and of productions of standard plays which in whole or in part are adapted to the content and activities of the general curriculum. Creating and playing roles develops insight into human emotional and aesthetic values; expressiveness of voice and body is enhanced; the foundation is laid for the ap-

preciation of the cultural contributions of the theater and dramatic literature.

(e) *To evaluate the dynamic powers of radio, television, and the motion picture, and to respond intelligently to them.* Experiences in radio listening and in evaluating of program content can be provided in almost any classroom; many classrooms can provide experiences in television. As a motivating force in a speech program and as a means of providing further insight into radio and television, programs can be developed; if other facilities are not available, a room-to-room or public address system broadcast can be used. Although few schools can afford to make motion pictures, many schools use educational films. These, and the professional entertainment film, can be employed to study the film, as an art and a means of mass communication, with attention to production methods and social effects.

### PART THREE: SPEECH IN SPECIALIZED EDUCATION

Beyond the learnings in speech essential to all students, schools should provide additional opportunities to challenge those who may have special interests and aptitudes, to train those who may take leadership roles, and to serve those who realize that speech is essential to their vocational and professional activities.

In specialized education, instruction in speech becomes more systematic and intensive than is possible in general education. Teaching, therefore, centers on two main purposes: (a) understanding of the principles, causes, and conditions which promote success in speaking effectively, and (b) guided experience marked by direct application of principles to practice. These purposes are achieved both by courses in speech in the school curriculum and through high-level experience in school activities outside the classroom.

#### I. IN THE SCHOOL CURRICULUM

The diversity of educational activities and the resources of schools determine the kind and extent of instruction. Nevertheless, the essentials of a sound minimum program may be suggested in the following central topics:

##### 1. *Fundamentals*

How speech sounds are made, care and improvement of the voice, the essentials of distinct utterance and acceptable pronunciation, poise and self-management, personality and speech.

## 2. *Reading Aloud*

The application of principles to a variety of materials and activities, including choral and group reading.

## 3. *Discussion*

Its values, aims, and chief forms, including procedure adapted to the conference and committee.

## 4. *Debate*

Its aims, methods, and practices, including its relation to discussion, to parliamentary law, and to the functioning of our society.

## 5. *Public Speaking*

Its aims, methods, and chief forms.

## 6. *Drama and Theater*

The qualities of a good play, the conditions and requirements for producing the play, the social and personal values of play participation, acting and role-playing, representative plays, and the creation of one's own play.

## 7. *Radio, Television, and Motion Picture*

The qualities of an effective broadcast, the differences between radio and television, the demands of radio and television on the speaker and listener, and the functioning of radio and television in our culture; the purposes, chief production methods and techniques, and the social effects of the motion picture. The requirements of the radio medium can be met by the adaptation of the materials and experience included within each topic.

In practice the seven topics appear in high-school courses in various combinations:

(a) A two-semester course, frequently called *Fundamentals of Speech or Oral Communication*, during the junior year and dealing with all six topics.

(b) A two-semester course devoted to fundamentals, discussion, debate, and public speaking; and a semester course devoted to reading aloud and drama and theater.

(c) A semester course centering on fundamentals and reading aloud; a semester course on discussion, debate, and public speaking, and a semester course on drama and theater.

(d) A semester course dealing with discussion, debate, and public speaking, with some attention to fundamentals and reading aloud.

(e) A semester course dealing with the personal and social implications of radio, television, and the moving picture listening and viewing.

The number and character of the special courses must *extend* and *complement* the experiences in speech provided in the general education offerings of the school. The educational record of the teacher who develops and participates in the speech program should disclose specialized college or university training in the seven topics above. If speech is the major teaching subject, the teacher may have emphasized (1) oral reading, theatre, and drama; or (2) public speaking, discussion, and debate; or (3) radio and television. Nevertheless, the teacher will have had supporting courses in all areas of speech. In semester hours, the record will show twenty to twenty-six. If speech is the second teaching subject, the teacher will have had at least one course in each area of speech; in terms of semester hours, the teacher's record will show sixteen to twenty.

#### 8. *Equipment and Supplies*

For the proper testing of speech and hearing, an audiometer is essential; a machine for recording speech is standard equipment. The speech correction teacher requires tests and materials for examination and retaining procedures.

Play production is most readily carried on with modern theatre facilities; but where a stage and auditorium are not available, much can be accomplished with adequate space and seating arrangements and with minimum materials for scene construction and lighting. Adequate time and space for rehearsal and for scene construction are the great essentials.

The classroom ordinarily affords satisfactory surroundings for most experiences in discussion and speechmaking. Arranging seats to permit face-to-face talk facilitates discussion.

An adequate debate program is absolutely dependent on ready access to a good library or to the latest books or articles on the proposition debated.

A good program in radio, television, and the mass media requires a motion picture projector, a tape recorder, a microphone, a radio, and (when practical) a TV receiver. Much can be done with radio speaking if a public address system is available and if acoustics are reasonably good. The large school may desire a radio studio to permit preparation for occasional broadcast programs. If programs are to be transcribed for later presentation, recording equipment of good quality should be available.

## II. IN EXTRA-CURRICULAR ACTIVITIES

The chief educational goal of extra-class and interscholastic activities in speech must be clearly comprehended. Such activities give the pupil of special aptitude an opportunity for more intensive and extended experience than is possible either in formal courses or in the general education program. In the small school, they may provide the only training in speech.

Principals and teachers, therefore, should treat the interscholastic speech activities as having educational values identical with those that govern classroom instruction in speech. Accordingly, these recommendations are offered:

1. That extra-class events be regarded as the counterpart of curricular instruction.
2. That extra-class events be integrated as closely as possible with class instruction.
3. That extra-class speech activities be taught by a person whose qualifications are in every sense equal to those of persons teaching speech in courses.
4. That the person teaching speech activities be given every right and privilege of other teachers, including the right to have the extra-class teaching counted in the teacher load.

Standards in extra-class instruction in speech cannot be maintained unless teachers and administrators conscientiously observe these recommendations. Even the most highly qualified teacher of speech activities requires time and energy for them. Speech events guided by a teacher of inadequate and narrow preparation or by one whose burden of duties permits only superficial last-minute preparation cannot well be expected to develop or continue an adequate speech program.

The wise principal and the qualified teacher, furthermore, should be mindful of the standards, forms, and regulations in speech activities which are determined and administered by state or national associations. The North Central Association and the Speech Association of America recommend that all groups which sponsor and administer speech contests keep in close touch with each other; that they seek advice and counsel of teachers of speech through their state and national organizations with a view to constant improvement of the speech events they administer. Such associations are concerned with the number and kinds of activities, the length of the season in each event, the encouragement of broad local participation, the educational goals of activities, criteria for the evaluation of events, the choice of quali-



fied critic judges and observers, and the schedules. The responsible agencies do not seek to legislate uniformity in these matters; rather they make it possible and convenient that students and teachers, meeting together on an interscholastic basis, may gain much from mutual observation, evaluation, and comment on common enterprises in speech.

Recognizing that interscholastic speech contests tend to become institutionalized and slow to change to meet modern social conditions, and believing that schools and teachers everywhere would be helped in their efforts to improve contests, the North Central Association and the Speech Association of America join in making the following recommendations:

1. Keeping the *educational* values of speech in today's society in mind, teachers and administrators should evaluate the aims, methods, and procedures of speech activities as they now exist. Although the names and forms of activities vary considerably, the following titles are widely used: public speaking, oratory, radio speaking, debate, dramatics, oratorical declamation, humorous reading, dramatic declamation, prose reading, verse speaking, and choral reading. Are all these events as appropriate today as they may have been twenty years ago? Does declamation (the memorized reading), for example, find a place among communicative situations today?
2. In events devoted to the oral reading of prose and poetry for appreciation and pleasure, reading from the page rather than speaking from memory should be encouraged. Some experiences in sight reading should be offered.
3. An event devoted to and emphasizing group discussion would appear to be highly desirable. Such an event should be genuinely motivated toward the acquiring of understanding and technique in committee and conference procedures as well as in discussion as an enterprise in group learning.
4. The teaching of debating should be extended to include in addition to the traditional forms, other procedures, especially those of the legislative type. The Moot Court, the Debaters Assembly, and the Student Congress all provide useful and possibly interesting variants from standard forms and all seem well designed to meet the essential purpose of scholastic debate; *i.e.*, the teaching of advocacy. In all school debates, greater emphasis should be placed on the speakers' talking to an audience. Possibly desirable or necessary as an exercise or as a rehearsal, tournament debating in an empty room can not be justified as an end in itself. Does not every student of debating have the

right to speak before a genuine audience at least as often as he speaks in a tournament rehearsal?

5. Events concerned with public speaking should emphasize extemporaneous speaking; i.e., the original speech which is carefully prepared but whose language is not memorized word-for-word. An event might be the panel-forum and could well require questions from the audience.
6. Activities planned to provide experiences in radio and television should include speaking, acting, writing, and producing, as well as listening. The planning and management of broadcasts are useful not only as a method of mastering of techniques but also as a motivating factor in learning essential principles of speech and as a means of developing intelligent listening.
7. In dramatic contests, good plays should be chosen to meet the needs of students, school, and community. The stock contest piece is too often undertaken merely because it has been a "winner."
8. The types of awards, the method of awarding them, and the manner of presenting them should be carefully examined with a view to their educational and psychological implications. To encourage the proper response, interscholastic meetings might well be called *festivals* or *conferences* rather than contests. The students' work may well be evaluated by the use of general categories such as superior, good, average. Contestants should have the opportunity to learn the bases of the judge's or critic's evaluation of their work. Interscholastic meetings will attain their greatest value when participants and teachers ask first, "How can we improve?" not "Who won?"

Extra-class occasions for speaking should be as real and as meaningful as possible. In speaking, discussion, and debate, subjects and problems can often be in tune with the interests of the school and the community. Opportunities are afforded by the school assembly, clubs, the school council, class meetings, and the like; civic groups often welcome students who are prepared to offer them something of interest. Plays, and scenes from plays, can be chosen not only for their entertainment values but for their insight into basic human problems, character, and behavior.

## CHAPTER II

# The Role of Discussion and Debate in a Democratic Society

JAMES H. McBURNEY

ONE way of describing democracy is to call it a system that provides for the management of public business by public discussion."<sup>1</sup>

"The essential need is the improvement of the methods and conditions of debate, discussion, and persuasion. That is *the* need of the public."<sup>2</sup>

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This article is an attempt to contribute to a better understanding of discussion and debate as pedagogical techniques in our schools and colleges and as methodologies in our society. Specifically, I hope that the synthesis here proposed can be a means of reducing the cleavage which appears to exist in some quarters between the proponents of discussion, on the one hand, and of debate on the other. With this latter purpose in view, it might be helpful to point out that the present writer has directed hundreds of debating teams, moderated discussions by the score, and authored books in both fields. In my opinion, discussion and debate are different but complementary methods, both useful in the schools, and both of great social importance.

From the point of view of the teacher of speech, the principal end in view in school activities in discussion and debate is to teach young men and women how to discuss and how to debate. If discussion and debate are as important in a democratic society as we think they are, this objective is certainly respectable. Putting our objective in these terms in no way loses sight of the contributions which sound training in discussion and debate makes in the fields of applied logic, practical psychology, and rhetoric, to say nothing of the better understanding of the problems discussed and debated. Let's put it simply: we believe

<sup>1</sup>Lyman Bryson, "Discussion in the Democratic Process." A lecture printed in full on pp. 386-393 of McBurney and Hance, *Discussion in Human Affairs*. See footnote 3.

<sup>2</sup>John Dewey, *The Public and Its Problems*. New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1927, p. 208.

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discussion and debate to be essential social tools; we believe it important that the schools give students an understanding of these tools and skill in their use. The diagram which appears on the opposite page may be helpful in considering these matters.

#### DISCUSSION

Certain basic assumptions underlie this diagram and our attitude toward it. *First*, we believe that conflict and difference are inevitable in human affairs, as all nature. We are constantly faced with problems, questions, crises great and small, anomalies, needs, desires, hopes, fears, and aspirations. Our attempts to adjust to nature and to man are at best imperfect. The tensions which result have far-reaching consequences. They may lead to personal and social frustration and violence. They may lead to more perfect human relations and social progress. This last we believe to be the highest goal of education and of social organization.

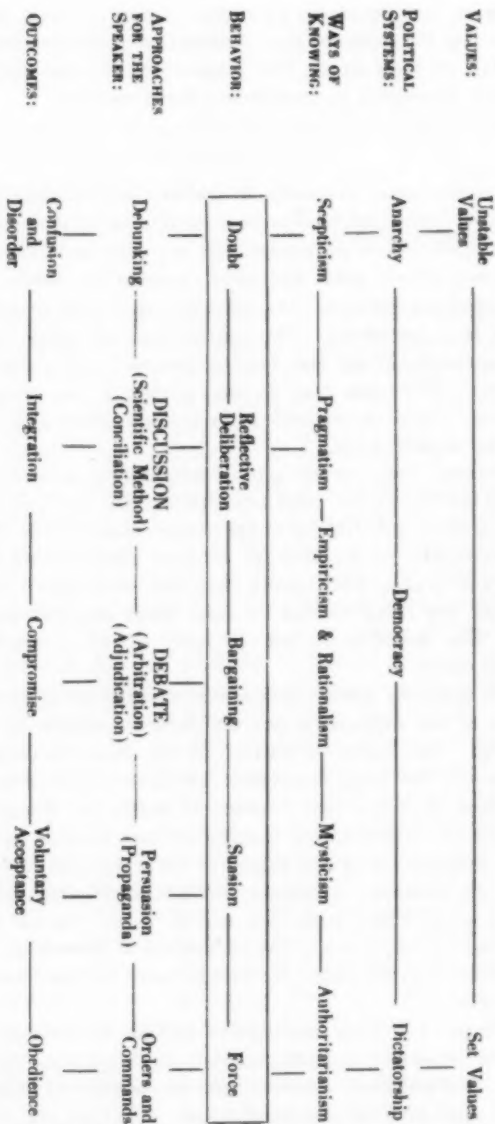
*Second*, there is an urgent compulsion, indeed a necessity, for man to face up to the conflicts, differences, and tensions which arise in his affairs. All life faces these compulsions. We like to think it is the peculiarly human heritage to meet these problems with more insight and higher intelligence than has been given to other forms of life. Of one thing we can be sure: these tensions exist and must be met. The question is one of *how, where, when, and under what circumstance*.

We make the *further* assumption that the integrity of the individual is one of the highest, if not the highest, values in resolving social conflict. This value is implicit in the great Christian-Hebraic tradition and in the great democratic tradition which is ours. Freedom of individual choice is the essence of individual integrity. We respect the right of the individual to make his own choices in all contexts and in all situations with due regard to the rights and privileges of others. Our laws, customs, traditions, and social institutions have been very largely established with this end in view. So far as possible, we even respect the right of the individual to be wrong. As much as we like efficiency, we prefer the right to make our own choices and our own decisions.

There is a *final* assumption and an exceedingly important one: freedom of choice requires freedom of information and access to the facts. The political or moral right to choose is likely to be an empty one if such choices are uninformed. *Thus we are interested in universal education*. We have to be. We can respect the right to be wrong and still urge the responsibility to be informed. We recognize

## APPROACHES FOR THE SPEAKER AND SOME OF THEIR POLITICAL AND PHILOSOPHICAL CORRELATES

Designed to Show the Relationships between Discussion and Debate



## NOTE:

1. All horizontal relationships are represented by a continuum from left to right—from anarchy to dictatorship, from scepticism to authoritarianism, from doubt to force, etc.
2. All vertical relationships indicate approximate correlates—unstable values, anarchy, scepticism, doubt, debunking, confusion and disorder, etc.

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individual differences in understanding and competence, and we insist that the best in understanding and intelligence should be given full play and opportunity. Where such freedom exists—the right to choose and the opportunity to learn—we have high faith in the desire and the capacity of the least of us to determine our affairs with much more sanity and humanity than is commonly credited to us.

These very fundamental assumptions are of enormous importance in determining preferences among the types of behavior, ways of knowing, and political systems appearing in the accompanying diagram. Begin with "reflective deliberation" and "discussion." Locate these on the diagram. As you move to the right, you move in the direction of bargaining, suasion, force, and dictatorship. Movement to the left leads to scepticism and anarchy. I don't mind saying that I have a strong personal preference for settling personal and social problems on the basis of reflective deliberation and co-operative discussion. I should think that anyone committed to the assumptions of democracy would hold such a preference (or bias). But strong as this preference is, it does not prevent me from joining in debate when issues are clearly drawn, or from resorting to the best kind of persuasion and propaganda I can bring to bear when circumstances dictate the wisdom of such action. Indeed, in certain group councils, I have been known to resort to orders and commands.

#### DISCUSSION IS CO-OPERATIVE DELIBERATION

Discussion, properly understood, is the co-operative deliberation of problems by persons thinking and conversing together in face-to-face or co-acting groups under the direction of a leader for purposes of understanding and action. It is co-operative; it is reflective; it is thought in process; it is an attempt to apply scientific method to personal and social problems of fact, value, and policy. It is most certainly democratic; indeed, the principal strengths and weaknesses are those of democracy. On the positive side, it brings our best critical thinking to bear on our common problems. It is a great respecter of the individual and his integrity. Authoritarianism, dictatorship, force, orders, and commands have little or no place in discussion.

#### DEBATE

But there are weaknesses and shortcomings in discussion. What if people can't agree? What if no consensus can be reached? If the problem is academic, we can agree to disagree and depart with better understanding. If, however, the problem is practical and immediate, we must reach a decision, a basis for action. Not all people are

reasonable, and time is often limited. When the limits of discussion have been reached, the only reasonable recourse in our kind of society is to debate. This seems so utterly clear and inescapable that one wonders why there should be any question about it. Look at the diagram again. When discussion breaks down, we face scepticism and anarchy, or, unless we are prepared to debate, we quickly move to force, commands, and dictatorship. These are the alternatives. We prefer debate. It is the democratic way.

Debate is a competition between opposing outcomes of thought—between positions which are logically incompatible. Legislative debate, by all odds the most important, usually takes place under some form of parliamentary procedure. Motions are made and debated. Under most circumstances the majority rules. To achieve a majority, amendments and compromises often are made. Forensic debate takes place under special judicial regulations, and a judge or jury decides.

We can no more dispense with legislative and forensic debate in a democratic society than we can take a walk to the moon. We can prefer co-operative, deliberative discussion; but we must be realistic enough to recognize its limitations. We can encourage the extension of discussion and its application in more situations, but the surest way to throw ourselves into the hands of a dictator is to outlaw debate. Of course, nobody is going to outlaw debate, whether we like it or not. The worst we can do is to deny our students the proper kind of training in this important democratic activity.

This leaves us with the question: What is the best way to teach students how to discuss and debate? I have ideas about this which I shall not take time to discuss here. We can tolerate individual differences in opinion about methods of preparing discussers and debaters. These differences are probably healthy. But I am strongly of the opinion that we ought to agree here and now that we need *both* discussion *and* debate in the schools and in society. That is the important thing! Unless I am seriously deluded, any other position is certainly unrealistic, if not downright stupid.<sup>3</sup>

<sup>3</sup>For a more complete discussion of the topics related to this article, see James H. McBurney and Kenneth G. Hance, *Discussion in Human Affairs*, New York: Harper and Brothers, 1950, Chapters I-V. For a complete discussion of the topic, "Ways of Knowing," see William P. Montague, *The Ways of Knowing*, London: Macmillan and Co., Ltd., 1935.



# PART II—TYPES OF EXPERIENCES IN PUBLIC SPEAKING, DISCUSSION, AND DEBATE

## SECTION A—COURSES

### CHAPTER III

## A Basic Secondary Course in Public Speaking

HUGH F. SEABURY

### INTRODUCTION

SECONDARY-SCHOOL administrators are concerned with the all-round and continuous development of boys and girls as responsible and effective persons in the school and community. Therefore, they have a right and an obligation to exercise leadership in determining the strengths and weaknesses of the program of study and activities in the high school. More significantly, they, along with teachers, parents, and the boys and girls themselves, have an obligation to analyze each aspect of the curriculum and its contribution to the total program. Although "broad areas," "common cores," departments, compartments, and special courses and activities seem necessary for convenience and efficiency, administrators have responsibility, and should have the commensurate authority, for making secondary education a single whole to accomplish the objective for which high schools are supported.

### OBJECTIVES OF OUR HIGH SCHOOLS

Free public high schools are supported by our society especially for its preservation and perhaps for its improvement. Therefore, the ultimate objective of our high-school program of study and activities seems to be to preserve and perhaps to improve our society. This ultimate objective seems to be accomplished, in so far as it is accomplished by our high schools, by making a change, a difference, and an improvement in boys and girls. Specifically, the improvement seems to be revealed in the present and future behavior of these

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boys and girls as boys and girls and later as adult members of the community. The subjects which they study and the activities in which they participate in the high school seem important and worth while only as these subjects and activities effect improvement of the behavior of boys and girls in the school and in the community. The importance and worth-whileness of the high-school program become more evident and acceptable as these boys and girls become responsible and effective adult citizens in our society.

About fifteen years ago, Thomas H. Briggs,<sup>1</sup> one of our outstanding leaders in secondary education, wrote, "The first duty of the school is to teach pupils to do better the desirable things that they are going to do anyway." These "desirable things" ought to be determined. Otherwise, *undesirable* "things" may be taught. Some "things" which were desirable *yesterday* may be desirable *today* and *tomorrow*. These may be called the "constants" of the high-school program. These "constants" may be taken for granted unless there is continuous or frequent re-evaluation, and resulting revision of the program as revision becomes necessary. Other things which *were* desirable may not be desirable *today* or *tomorrow*. These may be called the "variables" of the curriculum. Without continuous or frequent re-evaluation, and resulting revision, including deletions and additions, these "variables" become "constants." A vitally important "constant" seems to be the re-evaluation and necessary revision of the high-school program to determine and include the "desirable things that they are going to do anyway." But Briggs<sup>2</sup> wrote also, "Another duty of the school is to reveal higher activities and to make them both desired and to a maximum extent possible." These "higher activities" ought to be determined and included in the program. Otherwise, the high-school program cannot reveal them, make them desired, or make them possible, except as many of them have already been included in the program. Surely these "higher activities," in and out of the high school over which the school can exercise an influence, can effect improvement in the present and future behavior of high-school students.

Simultaneously, the high-school program, or curriculum, must provide experiences through which teachers can "teach pupils to do better the desirable things that they are going to do anyway" and "reveal higher activities and...make them both desired and to a maximum extent possible." Provision for these experiences and for the guidance of students *into* and *in* these experiences seems to be the challenge

<sup>1</sup> Briggs, Thomas H. *Secondary Education*, New York, The Macmillan Company, 1935, p. 258.

<sup>2</sup> Briggs, Thomas H. *Ibid.*, p. 268.

and the responsibility of those charged with the organization and administration of our high schools. Unless the challenge and responsibility are accepted and successfully met and executed, it seems that high-school students cannot make the most and best of themselves.

#### OBJECTIVES OF A BASIC COURSE IN PUBLIC SPEAKING

It may seem that a basic course in public speaking does not belong in a curriculum designed to achieve either of the objectives of the high school. If the course is designed or taught only to develop *public* or *platform* speakers, it probably does not belong. If it is permitted to develop or encourage exhibitionists, sophists, or trophy seeking contest winners *per se*, it does not belong. If it results in the cultivation of voluble speakers who talk "in a vacuum," "pool ignorance with ignorance," or give evidence of their lack of understanding, or responsibility for, what they say, it will be harmful. If it is designed to emphasize, primarily, the manner and form of speaking, it "puts a premium on form over matter." If it is unrelated to "what goes on or ought to go on" in the school and community, it does not belong in the program. If it deals with insignificant subject matter or activities or subject matter and activities which are not related to the speech interests, needs, abilities, and capabilities of high-school students, it will offer too little. If it is recognized by the students as an easy, elective course, it will probably be elected only by students who seek an "easy credit." If it is recognized by the students as a good, elective course, it will probably be elected by a few students who can profit least from it. If it is taught by a teacher whose interest, training, or experience in it is lacking, it will probably be a relatively easy and worthless course. Even if it is taught by a teacher whose interest, training, and experience in it are excellent and whose philosophy is sound, local pressure on the teacher and students to win contests or to win favorable publicity can destroy the values of the course. If it is taught by a well-qualified teacher of speech who is expected to relate and develop understanding and skill in unrelated content or skills, it will likely be disappointing. Any of these shortcomings can make the course relatively worthless or even harmful.

However, none of these shortcomings is either unique to a course in public speaking or necessarily results from it. If the course is designed and taught to help students to do significantly better some desirable things which they, otherwise, would not do or would do inadequately, the course seems to belong in the curriculum. If it is designed and taught to engage students in higher activities which would not, otherwise, be revealed to them or designed to help them

progress expeditiously toward the goals of higher activities, the course seems to belong in the high school. If the course helps them to develop concepts, attitudes, and skills which they would not, otherwise, develop and which are essential for the preservation or improvement of our society, the course seems to belong in the high school. If the course is designed and taught to accomplish objectives in consonance with this analysis, its significance and worth-whileness may well make it a "constant" in the high-school curriculum.

What are some "desirable things" which they, otherwise, would do inadequately or would not do at all? Speaking is presumed to be a "desirable thing," an essential activity. It may be informal or formal speaking. It may be done in relative privacy or in public. When they speak, they are not necessarily making speeches. Whether they are speaking or making speeches, they are not merely vocalizing, articulating, or "gesturing." Good speaking is purposeful and easily understood. It gets the desired response. Good speaking, whether or not it is used in making a speech, consists, presumably, of *content, organization, phraseology, and projection.*

"Content in speaking" refers, presumably, to "what they talk about" and to "what they say about it." "What they talk about" is interpreted to refer to the topic or ideas of their speech *and* of their speeches when they make speeches. These topics or ideas are, in a sense, comparable to the topics or ideas in topic sentences in *written* paragraphs. "What they say about it" refers to the *details* they use to explain, support, or develop their ideas or topics. These details consist of explanations, examples, anecdotes, descriptions, analogies, illustrations, stories, evidence, *et cetera*. This content includes ideas which the students have gained and are gaining, from their experiences, including reading, observations, thinking, *et cetera*, in the school, the home, and the community.

"Organization" refers to the arrangement of the content for the purpose of getting the desired response from the audience of one or more people. Clarity of speaking depends greatly on clarity of organization of content. Clarity of organization of content and the facility with which content is clearly organized depend on the insight, understanding, judgment, and skill of its "organizers." The insight, understanding, judgment, and skill seem to depend on successful experiences in organizing content. Opportunities for successful experiences in organizing content seem to belong in the high-school curriculum.

"Phraseology" refers here to the selection and arrangement of words with which speakers express themselves for purposes of communication. The meanings and attitudes which speakers stir up in

their audiences are greatly dependent on the phraseology of the speakers. Opportunities for experiences in phraseology do, without doubt, exist in our high schools. However, there seems to be too little emphasis on the selection and arrangement of words for developing proficiency in phraseology in speaking or in making speeches. Whether it is true for writing is another matter.

"Projection" refers here to the act of sending out, or projecting, sound waves or light waves, or both, to stimulate in audiences of one or more people the desired meanings and attitudes. This may be called self-expression, communication, or delivery. Whether the meanings and attitudes are desirable depend, in part, on the speaker's content. Whether they "stir up" their desired meanings and attitudes depend greatly on their organization of the content, the phraseology which they use, and their skill in projection.

How much emphasis on proficiency, how many planned experiences to develop proficiency, how much interest and skill in teaching, and how much proficiency in either speaking or in making speeches are, actually, to be found in our high schools? And yet, as Charles Woolbert,<sup>3</sup> one of our outstanding leaders in speech education, wrote, "It (speech) is used by more people every day and in more ways and to solve more issues than any other human activity which is subject to investigation and learning."

What good is freedom of speech for persons who are not proficient in speaking? What good is it for persons who lack proficiency in bringing to bear in speech situations the ideas and details of their experiences in the school, home, and community? What good is freedom of speech for persons who lack proficiency in arranging their ideas and in the selection and use of words to express themselves? What good is it for persons who have ideas, who can organize their ideas, and who can phrase their ideas but who lack proficiency in projection—resulting in a lack of confidence in themselves to participate with responsibility and effectiveness in speech situations? Speech is, surely, the most used means of communication for high-school students and adults. It is, surely, their chief instrument of social adaptation, co-operation, and control. Clarity, conciseness, orderliness, accuracy, forcefulness, and general excellence of expression, together with ruthless elimination of irrelevancy and jargon, seem desirable and necessary in the school, home, church, and community. As Ira C. Eaker,<sup>4</sup> former Deputy Commanding General, Army Air Force, wrote, "While ability to

<sup>3</sup>Woolbert, Charles H. "The Teaching of Speech as an Academic Discipline," *The Quarterly Journal of Speech*, Vol. IX, No. 1, p. 2.

<sup>4</sup>Eaker, Ira C. Letter, dated June 3, 1946. Addressed to the Commanding General, Air University.

think clearly, logically, and soundly needs no defense or selling..., the incalculable value of its essential corollary, ready ability to express oneself, is unfortunately not so generally appreciated." The number of students who do not seem to have developed the degree of speech proficiency required in communication skills courses in colleges and universities suggests that "the ready ability to express oneself" is not *generally* appreciated.

Proficiency in speaking, as herein described, is appreciated in some high schools. Its appreciation is evidenced in many colleges and universities. Students entering the State University of Iowa, for example, are required to demonstrate proficiency in speech or to register in "speech emphasis sections" in the College of Liberal Arts until excused on the basis of satisfactory accomplishment. It may require one, two, three, four, or even more semesters for a student to attain the degree of proficiency required. All colleges of the State University of Iowa require applicants to demonstrate satisfactory accomplishment according to the requirements of the College of Liberal Arts. Furthermore, principles of speech, public speaking, and/or debating are each highly recommended to students by some of the colleges. Several other colleges and universities have similar requirements and make similar recommendations. These course requirements and recommendations are designed to help college students to do better "desirable things" which they are going to do anyway and which they should have learned to do in high school. What is done for the greater number of high-school students who do not go to college? What are some "higher activities" which would not, otherwise, be revealed to high-school students? And what are some goals of "higher activities" toward which they would not, otherwise, progress expeditiously?

Speaking is, without doubt, a "desirable thing" which most students will do anyway. They may not have much confidence in themselves as speakers. They may not have much to say or may not be able to say it well. They may not be able to organize their ideas well; but they can, perhaps, "get by" at home and in their circle of friends at school. It appears to be assumed, however, that, since they can use their voices and articulators, they can speak. If a few of them have serious speech defects, including voice and articulatory defects, they may be neglected, pitied, or, if they are fortunate, referred to a speech correctionist. A few of them who have special interest in speaking may, if they are fortunate, be provided opportunity to participate in dramatic art, in school and community programs, and in intra- and inter-school speech and dramatic art activities. But the great majority of students who have neither serious speech defects nor

special interest and ability in speaking probably will not be provided opportunity to participate in speech activities with the guidance of a teacher who is trained to help them to speak well. Although *good speaking* is impossible without content, organization, phraseology, and projection, the students who are most likely to get help in speaking are those who are handicapped in projection or those who are recognized as capable of "higher speaking activity." Although *good speaking* is, without doubt, a "higher activity" than mere speaking, from the point of view of anyone who reads this, significant experiences and qualified guidance for developing *good speaking* are not provided in many of our high schools. Significant experiences for developing *good speaking* provide opportunities for students to become proficient in adjustment to speech situations, in making audience adjustments, in selecting, organizing, and developing their ideas *for* and *in* speech communication, in voice and voice control, in the use and control of bodily action for speaking, in the use of language, in pronunciation, and in enunciation and articulation. These are fundamentals on which *good speaking* depends. As students develop *good speaking*, they are building their personalities, their intellects, and their emotional balance and control. In what "higher activity" can they engage?

*Reading aloud* is, without doubt, a "desirable thing" which most students will do anyway. They may not have confidence in their ability to read aloud, because, although they have the capacity, they don't, really, have much ability to read aloud. They may not read much, partly because they are not interested in reading. What they do read may not be read well. They may not be able to interpret what is available to them. They may lack the ability to "stir up" in others the meanings which they get from the printed page. And yet, *reading aloud* serves us, functionally, in our everyday affairs as we read to others excerpts from our newspapers, as we read stories to our children, and as we share with one another printed directions, legal documents, business and some personal letters, recipes, the minutes of meetings, *et cetera*. Although *reading aloud* has some utilitarian value, it can become with us a "higher activity" as it must have been in the family reading circles of New England. *Good reading aloud* can be a "higher activity" when it is done for the information, understanding, and pleasure of the reader and others. *Good reading aloud* depends on what the reader chooses to read, on his comprehension of what he reads, and on his skill in "stirring up" in others the meaning which he gets from the printed page. In other words, *good reading aloud* perpetuates the reading of good literature and, thereby, perpetuates good literature. Probably *appreciation of* and *desire to read good*



prose, poetry, and dramatic literature depend more on the reader's skill in reading it aloud than on his merely comprehending its meaning. His skill in reading aloud probably adds much to his appreciation of reading by others. Furthermore, fundamentals of good reading aloud are basic to fundamentals of good speaking and good conversation. The mastery of the fundamentals of good reading aloud and good speaking seems basic to growth of personalities, intellects, and emotional balance and control. In what "higher activity" can one participate?

*Good discussion* is a co-operative effort by individuals, with the stimulation and guidance of a leader, to find answers to questions, to find solutions to problems, or to reach conclusions based on an analysis of all the relevant data available to the individuals and the leader. Recognition of problems in the school and community; phrasing problems clearly, briefly, and impartially; breaking problems down into their sub-problems; determining and clarifying objectives of discussion; stating basic and essential assumptions; determining the scope of problems; preparing agenda for leadership of discussion and for participation by discussants; collecting basic and necessary data; extracting truths from particular data and cases; inferring particulars from general laws; discerning patterns of relationships; drawing sound conclusions from premises; recognizing and analyzing possible answers, solutions, or conclusions; and planning courses of action to "try out" tentative conclusions—these all seem to be fundamentals of good discussion. Good discussion is dependent, surely, on proficiency in its fundamentals. As students develop their proficiency in discussion, they are building their personalities, intellects, and emotional balance and control. In what "higher activity" can they participate?

*Good debating* seems to be a systematic attempt, by means of well-documented argument and sound reasoning, to influence people to believe as we want them to believe. *Theoretically*, good debating begins after discussants have extracted from particular data and cases what seem to them to be truths, after they have inferred particulars from general laws, after they have discerned patterns of relationships, after they have drawn what seem to them to be sound conclusions, and after they have formed intelligent and informed opinions, judgments, and, perhaps, convictions. *Actually*, debate begins whenever a student in school, a member of a family, or a citizen in a democracy advocates his opinion, his judgment, or his conviction. The student and the citizen of a democracy each feels called upon to make his point of view prevail. Each tries to influence others to agree with him, to accept his conclusion, to adopt the policy or the course of action which he advocates. This seems to be correct and proper. However, it does



not deny the values of discussion or the values of scientific experiment. But different discussants, like different experimenters, reach different and conflicting conclusions, oftentimes after they have analyzed the same data. "Majority" and "minority" points of view are not uncommon as the result of good discussion of problems, particularly problems that do not lend themselves to scientific experimentation. These conflicts need to be resolved in student councils, in classes and clubs, in family circles, in town councils, in courts, in legislatures, in Congress, and in international conferences. Many times it is necessary for citizens of democracy to present their cases to a "jury of their peers" and to act upon the decision of the jury. The ability to know *what* is the right case to present, *how* to organize it, *when* to present it, and *how* to present it with clarity and conviction is surely desirable. As Dodd and Seabury<sup>5</sup> stated, "The primary purpose of any (good) debating in real life . . . is to make the right solution of a problem prevail or to bring about the right settlement of a question." In what "higher activity" can high-school students participate?

Other activities in a basic high-school course in public speaking are either "higher activities" or can become "higher activities." *Good extemporaneous speaking, radio and television speaking, group and individual pantomimes, radio and television skits and plays, and the reading and production of plays* are activities through which students can develop their personalities, intellects, and emotional balance and control.

In addition, these activities seem to constitute *effective shortcuts* to basic objectives of education. Some of these objectives of a basic high-school course in public speaking seem synonymous with those fundamental goals of education which were cited by the Educational Policies Commission;<sup>6</sup> namely, the objectives of self-realization, human relations, economic efficiency, and civic responsibility. Other such fundamental objectives have been cited by the Harvard Committee;<sup>7</sup> namely, to think effectively, to communicate thought, to make relevant judgments, and to discriminate among values.

### THREE ASPECTS OF THE COURSE

With the foregoing analysis in mind, a basic course in "public speaking" can be constructed that will provide for (1) the *appraisal of*

<sup>5</sup>Dodd, Celeste V., and Seabury, Hugh F. *Our Speech*, Austin, Texas, The Steck Company, 1940, p. 411.

<sup>6</sup>Educational Policies Commission. *The Purposes of Education in American Democracy*, National Education Association, 1938, pp. 39-124.

<sup>7</sup>Harvard Committee. *General Education in a Free Society*, Harvard University Press, 1945, pp. 64-79.

each student's interests, needs, abilities, and capacities in speaking and reading aloud; (2) the *orientation* by each student in principles, fundamentals, and practices of speaking, reading aloud, and observing and listening; and (3) the *development* of each student's abilities in speaking, reading aloud, observing and listening, and in his adjustment to speaking situations.

#### THE APPRAISAL OF STUDENTS AND THEIR SPEAKING

The teacher will want to appraise his students individually and collectively. He will want to appraise their interest, needs, abilities and capacities in speaking. He will want to study them in order to determine their individual differences and group tendencies. Otherwise, he cannot begin with them *where they are* and *take each of them* expeditiously toward the attainment of objectives which they each recognize and accept as leading to desired and achievable outcomes.

The teacher will want to appraise (1) the adequacy of each student's self-confidence, self-control, poise, and adjustment in a variety of increasingly complex speech situations; (2) the intelligence, background, maturity, stability, and interests of each student for achieving outcomes of the course which are in consonance with desirable outcomes of secondary education; (3) each student's personableness, alertness, adaptability, initiative, industry, resourcefulness, cooperativeness, vigor and force, sincerity, tact, and interest in self-improvement; (4) the worthiness and clarity of each student's objectives as he speaks; (5) each student's initiative and ability to recognize problems, topics, and propositions in the school and community which can profitably be considered in the course; (6) each student's initiative and ability to structuralize, or make a framework, and to organize his ideas within and around the structure; (7) each student's initiative and ability to select and organize clearly supporting details which are related to his ideas and which explain or document his ideas; (8) each student's phraseology, including his vocabulary, word choice and pronunciation, and use of language in speaking; (9) each student's purposefulness, responsiveness, and control of his bodily action and voice in speaking; (10) each student's skill in enunciation and articulation; (11) each student's choice of material for reading aloud and his interest and ability in reading aloud from the printed page; (12) each student's interest and ability to observe and listen discriminately; (13) each student's "knowledge" and understanding of the principles, fundamentals, and practices of speaking, reading aloud, and listening and observing; (14) each student's appreciation for the freedom of speech and the responsibility of himself and others in exercising it;

and (15) the satisfaction which each student gets from participation in the activities of the course and from his achievement of desired outcomes of his participation.

Although the appraisal of the students by the teacher will be a continuous process during the course, the teacher will want to make his initial effort during the first few days of the course. He may begin it before the course starts. His appraisal may be begun by consulting the individual records of the students in the central office of the school. Each student's intelligence, background, maturity, stability, scholastic attainments, interests and ambitions, and personality traits will likely be indicated by his records. The appraisal may be continued through each student's (1) completing a carefully devised autobiographical blank which can reveal to the teacher his interests, needs, and abilities in speaking and his professed attitude toward speaking and speech situations; (2) making a short autobiographical talk in which he elaborates on suggested topics for the purpose of helping the teacher to become better acquainted with him in order better to help him; (3) taking carefully devised voice and articulation tests, such as those Fairbanks<sup>8</sup> devised, to reveal the student's use of loudness, pitch, quality, and duration of his voice and to reveal deficiencies and defects in enunciation and articulation; (4) making and playing back voice and speech recordings, if a tape or other recorder and reproducer can be made available, to reveal to the teacher and to the student his voice properties and his use of them, his speech rate, emphasis, inflection, and variety, his sustaining of thought, his directness, distinctness, and intelligibility as he speaks and reads aloud, and perhaps the clarity of his organization and excellence of his phraseology; (5) choosing and reading aloud prose and poetry which will enable a trained speech teacher to diagnose his speech interests, needs, and abilities in reading aloud; (6) making a short expository or persuasive speech which will enable the trained teacher to diagnose his adjustment, attitude, ideas, ability to organize, initiative, and ability to document or support his ideas, his phraseology, his bodily action, *et cetera*; (7) taking paper-and-pencil tests which are carefully designed to indicate his understanding of principles, fundamentals, and practices of speaking and reading aloud; and (8) participating in conferences with the teacher to analyze his speech interests and needs and to make plans for his improvement.

Although accurate appraisal of the student's speech interests, needs, abilities, and capacities is desirable and even necessary if

<sup>8</sup>Fairbanks, Grant. *Voice and Articulation Drillbook*, New York, Harper and Brothers, 1940, pp. IX-XXIV.

the teacher is to plan and teach the course to help as best he can each student, it is by no means a substitute for good instruction to enable the student to become oriented to the principles, fundamentals, and practices of the course and to enable him to develop his ability to speak effectively. Without such appraisal, it seems difficult if not impossible to know where to begin, whether progress is being made by the students, or whether the objectives of the course have been accomplished when the course ends.

#### THE ORIENTATION OF STUDENTS

Although the teacher will want, initially and continuously, to appraise each student and his orientation and development, the student will not know when the emphasis on appraisal leaves off and the emphasis on his orientation begins. Neither will he know when the emphasis on his orientation leaves off and the emphasis on his development begins. It seems best that he will not know, because the three are not mutually exclusive. No narrow line separates them. Furthermore, all three are accomplished through student activities on which students' attention will be centered, except as each student's attention is centered on his problem or need during or temporarily apart from the group activity. Even if the student has a special speech problem or need, the teacher will encourage him to get back into the group activity. However, it seems well to indicate some principles, fundamentals, and practices in speaking in which the students will become oriented. Perhaps some such attitudes and concepts as the following will be developed:

1. *Speech is learned, not inherited.* Although a person is born with capacity to speak, he is born without ability to speak. He who is born with much capacity to speak may develop less ability than another person who is born with less capacity. Although he learns to speak before the age of six, he is not likely to be satisfied for long thereafter with the speech which he learned. Whether he is satisfied, he seems to develop the attitude that nothing can be done about it, because his speech was inherited. This is an unsound attitude which will be changed in a good course in public speaking.

2. *Adjustment ("at-homeness") in speech situations is developed, is not a gift to anybody.* All of us lack self-confidence and become ill-at-ease in some speech situations. Platform "fright," "stagefright," or apprehension are natural and proper for us when we approach speech situations which challenge us. Through a variety of carefully planned speech experiences and resulting insight in increasingly complex speech situations, we can develop self-confidence, self-control, poise,

adjustment, and "at-homeness" in these situations. Most adults never develop it because they either have not had the opportunity or have not taken advantage of the opportunity.

3. *Good speaking cannot develop in a vacuum.* What we talk about, what we say about it, and how we talk are influenced by our intellects, our background of experiences *in and out of school*, our emotional balance and control, our maturity, and our training and interest. A large part of the "content" of the basic course in public speaking will be drawn from many strands of the school and community. Since speaking permeates, and is a vital part of, nearly every "learning situation" in the school and activity in the community, the course will not be confined to the four walls of the classroom or to consideration of the "techniques" of good speaking.

4. *Good speaking cannot develop without consideration of the personality traits of the speaker.* The traits affect his speech, and his speech affects his personality traits.

5. *Good speaking depends, in part, on the worthiness and clarity of objectives.* The course will provide experiences in speaking to inform, to explain, to describe, to convince, to actuate, to provoke thinking, and to entertain. These seem to be objectives for which men speak.

6. *Good speaking depends, in part, on what men talk about.* The course will help students to recognize problems, topics, and propositions in the school and in the community which can be utilized to develop their speaking abilities and to extend their backgrounds of experience.

7. *Good speaking depends, in part, on the initiative and ability to organize ideas.* The course will provide experiences in organizing ideas in patterns; such as, (a) chronological or "time order"; (b) logical, in which main points are clearly co-ordinate, subordinate points are clearly subordinate to the main points and co-ordinate with each other, and all points are supported by illustrations, examples, anecdotes, analogies, statistics, or other details; (c) psychological, in which details with which students are familiar are set forth and the point drawn from the details; (d) problem-solution; or (e) a combination of two or more of the patterns.

8. *Good speaking depends, in part, on phraseology.* The course will continuously provide for student activities *during and after* which attention will be focused on each student's vocabulary, word choice, pronunciation, and use of language. Special activities will be planned to care for individual differences as well as group tendencies in phraseology.

9. *Good speaking depends, in part, on bodily action and voice in speaking.* The course will be concerned with ideas and their communication. Bodily action and voice will be treated as "means to an end" rather than as "ends in themselves." However, special activities, exercises, and even "drills" in pantomime and voice will be planned as necessary to serve the needs of the students. Purposefulness, responsiveness, and control of bodily action and voice in speaking seem necessary in good speaking.

10. *Good speaking depends, in part, on skill in enunciation and articulation.* Again, special activities for the group and individual assistance in and outside of the group will be provided during the course.

11. *Good speaking depends on some of the same skills as does good reading aloud.* The course will provide guidance in the choice of material which students read for the information and pleasure of themselves and others. In addition, it will provide assistance in getting the meaning from the printed page and in "stirring up" the meaning in other people.

12. *Good speaking depends, in part, on observation and listening.* Each speaking assignment will be accompanied with an *observing* and *listening* assignment. Each student will *observe* and *listen* to speakers, actors, radio commentators, and their "fellows" to determine their purposes and their means of trying to achieve their aims. Outlines and written and oral reports on these observations and listening experiences will be submitted to teachers. Each student should improve in his ability to make outlines, take notes, analyze evidence and reasoning, absorb information, note central ideas and supporting details, and analyze and evaluate the speaker's total effort, including its ethical, logical, and emotional appeals.

13. *Good speaking depends, in part, on the speaker's character and responsibility in exercising his freedom of speech.* Attention will be focused on the obligation of citizens of a democracy to have something important to say, to "speak out" in helping to solve problems and in making "right" prevail, and to accept responsibility for exercising their freedom to speak and their responsibility for what they say in exercising it.

14. *Good speaking depends, in part, on the satisfaction each student gets from his participation in speech situations.* Speech activities in the course will "take" each student from "where he is" to "where he and his teacher want him to go." Each student will be "taken" from the "relatively simple" to the "complex," from "knowns" to "unknowns," from the "old" to the "new," and from the "familiar"

to the "unfamiliar." This concept will help to guide each student and his teacher in the activities in the course.

15. *Good speaking is a unified activity.* No single organ of speech exists. The whole human organism speaks. When a person speaks, he draws on every part of himself and from his background of experiences. If speech education, or its equivalent, has not been a part of his experience, he probably cannot fully appreciate the interdependence of the parts of his organism or the interdependence of speech and thought. Likely, he will not fully appreciate the interdependence of responsible and effective speech and a democratic society.

#### THE DEVELOPMENT OF STUDENTS

Student development will start on the first day and will continue beyond the last day of the course. Although appraisal of students will be emphasized at the beginning, at the end, and intermittently throughout the course, it will serve student development. Although orientation in theory and subject matter, like appraisal, will be emphasized, it, also, will serve student development. Student development will result from teacher-guided student participation in speech activities and in speech performances by the students. Each teacher and his students will determine the speech activities and speech performances of which the major portion of the course will consist. The following are suggested activities and performances:

1. *Short Introductory Talk.* The student will introduce himself to the group. Members of the group will select the major headings each will develop. The teacher will guide them in their selection and organization of the major headings.

2. *Oral Interpretation of Prose.* Members of the group, with guidance by the teacher, will determine standards by which prose passages will be selected and their reading aloud will be analyzed by the teacher and students. Stories and short passages may be chosen from the works of authors selected by the students and the teacher.

3. *Short Explanatory Speeches with Visual Aids.* Criteria for the selection of topics and other criteria by which the speeches will be analyzed will be determined by the class and the teacher. Topics may be drawn from around the school, the home, and the town or community. Hobbies, books and magazines, radio and television, and civic affairs may afford topics. Blackboard work, charts, pictures, apparatus, and actual objects may be used as visual aids. Students and the teacher will analyze the speeches in accordance with the criteria accepted by them.



4. *Oral Interpretation of Poetry.* Standards for selection of poetry will be discussed and accepted by students and the teacher. The teacher will have lists of poems and "cuttings" of poetry which will be appropriate for the students. Although the poetry should be interesting to the students, it will challenge their interpretative and communicative abilities and raise their level of appreciation and enjoyment. Every effort will be made to help students to make selections on the basis of their individual differences. Enjoyment, successful interpretation, and effective projection will be paramount. The teacher may want to do some reading aloud. Recordings of well-read poetry may be played and discussed. The analysis of reading by students will encourage students as well as help them to improve their oral interpretation.

5. *Individual and Group Pantomimes.* The students will be interested in pantomimes for the expression of the emotions of fear, anger, and joy, for the pantomimic impersonation of *well-known* and *local* characters, and for telling stories. The teacher will be prepared with suggestions for pantomimes by girls, by boys, and by groups. The objectives, values, procedures, and standards for analysis of pantomiming will need to be understood and accepted by the students and the teacher.

6. *Phonetics, Diacritical Marks, Spelling, Pronunciation, and Articulation.* With skillful motivation, well-planned assignments, and excellence of instruction, high-school students will learn phonetic symbols and the sounds represented by phonetic symbols. They will read aloud passages written in phonetic symbols and will write in phonetic symbols short, dictated passages. Likewise, they will learn the diacritical marks. They will mark diacritically and accent word-lists or commonly mispronounced words, and pronounce the words correctly in class. In addition, they will be interested in the articulation of sounds in isolation, in words, in sentences, in "tongue twisters for lazy lips and lazy tongues," and in especially selected passages of prose and poetry.

7. *Informative and Explanatory Speeches on Speech Content.* The topics will be selected by the students from a list of topics prepared by the teacher from the textbook and reference books for the course. These speeches will provide opportunity for another speaking experience and for discussion of speech theory and subject matter.

8. *Discussion.* Students will discuss problems of fact, value, and policy. Panel, symposium, forum, and small group discussions may be held on school, community, state, and national problems. Responsibilities and procedures of leaders and discussions will be studied.



9. *Parliamentary Procedure.* Students will prepare motions, bills, and resolutions, debate them in parliamentary meetings, and become oriented in parliamentary procedure.

10. *Extemporaneous Speeches on Topics from TIME, NEWSWEEK, and AMERICAN OBSERVER.* Students will determine and clarify objectives, select and limit subjects, make outlines, collect and analyze data, and make speeches for evaluation and criticism in terms of fundamentals and skills in speech making.

11. *Radio Speeches.* Students will present short talks on topics which they choose, and will read "commercials." Performances will be made over a loud-speaker system. The speeches may be recorded and played back for analysis of radio speaking.

12. *Argumentative Speeches.* Students will make speeches to convince on current social, economic, and political questions. Organization, documentation, sources, and presentation will be analyzed after each speech.

13. *One-Act Play Unit.* Students will produce enough one-act plays for each student to get a part in a play and experience on a production crew. The plays may be cuttings from long plays. They may be staged in the classroom. In any event, they are recommended as a significant part of the course for developing self-confidence, self-control, poise, co-operation, responsibility, and effectiveness of students in speech situations.

14. *Radio Plays.* Students will produce short plays over the public address system or over the local radio station provided the play is well done and provided the necessary arrangements can be made with the station. Each student will be cast in at least one role in at least one play. The plays will be rehearsed, recorded, analyzed, and recorded again and again until a reasonably high standard of production is attained.

15. *Speeches for Special Occasions.* Students will develop their abilities to make announcements, introductions, nominations, presentations of gifts, responses and acceptances, oral reports, sales talks, speeches of welcome, eulogies, toasts, book reports, business requests and complaints, and oral applications for positions.

These and other significant speech activities and performances should help all students to become proficient speakers and oral readers and should, thereby, help them to become responsible and effective persons in the school and community. The aim is *not* to make all students *public* speakers, but to make them *proficient* speakers in public and private life; *not* to make all students *platform* or *public* readers, but to make them *skillful* readers in reading for the information,

understanding, and pleasure for themselves and others; *not* to make all students *stage* actors, but to develop in them self-confidence, poise, and effectiveness in speech situations. However, opportunities are provided for students to develop ability in public speaking, forensics, platform reading, and acting.

#### CONCLUSION

Although a basic course in public speaking is recommended for inclusion in the high-school curriculum, it is not recommended as a "cure-all" for all educational ills, as a replacement for other equally worthy courses, or as a complete speech program for the high school. Rather, such a course is recommended to help "pupils to do better the desirable things that they are going to do anyway" and "to reveal (to pupils some of the) higher activities and to make them both desired and to a maximum extent possible."

## CHAPTER IV

# A Secondary School Course in Discussion

PAUL W. KELLER

IF, by some ingenious device, a person were able to take the lid off of a community and to observe the individuals, Lilliputian-like, going about their complex of activities, he ought to be able, before long, to pick out those who had received training in discussion. He would, presumably, find them in the thick of things, interested in helping solve the important issues of community life. Yet he would notice, in contrast to the normal impulsiveness of behavior, a calmness and reflectiveness in the behavior of these individuals, a behavior which might be typified by the term "animated moderation." Assuredly, he would observe some citizens gathered around tables in thoughtful demeanor, while others busied themselves with writing directives, barking orders, and "laying down the law." More of those in the first category, he would discover, were among the discussion trainees. And, if he tapped, at random, a few of the "men on the street" and asked them to identify individuals who had helped the community solve this problem or that, the chances are good that among those named could be found former students of discussion.

The picture is, no doubt, an idealized one. It is meant to be. It over-simplifies, takes no account of individual differences, makes extravagant claims. But it embodies some of the most important results claimed for instruction in discussion,<sup>1</sup> and raises the possibility that such training may make an important difference both in the life of the individual who receives it and in the communities in which he works and lives.

What, then, would such training be like? Put in the form of a course, what might it include? What would it require of the student,

<sup>1</sup>Discussion is used in these remarks in the sense contained in the definition by McBurney and Hance: *Discussion in Human Affairs*, Harpers, 1951, p. 10: "Discussion is defined as the co-operative deliberation of problems by persons thinking and conversing together in face-to-face or co-acting groups under the direction of a leader for purposes of understanding and action."

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the teacher, the school in which it was offered? What could be hoped for from it?

### GENERAL OBJECTIVES

Back in 1945 the Harvard Commission on Higher Education concluded that among the most important educational goals were these: (1) to provide the student with an opportunity to learn how to think effectively, (2) to equip him to communicate thought, (3) to enable him to make relative judgments, and (4) to help him find ways to discriminate among values. Comprehensive and far-reaching as these goals may be, the course in discussion aims at every one of them. It is, in fact, difficult to imagine a course better equipped by its very nature to tackle such objectives than is the course in discussion. The effective discussion participant is a composite of the four capacities mentioned. If he fails in any one of them, he comes somewhat short of rewarding discussion.

But these objectives deal with what it is hoped may happen to individuals. Does the course envision any objectives concerning society as a whole? Yes it does.

1. It aims, in the long run, at providing for the survival of a free and responsible society (through the production of a well-informed, free citizenry).
2. It seeks reduction of the tensions which plague society (through emphasis on the techniques of agreement and correct evaluation).
3. It emphasizes the positive, creative values which can be realized in group, rather than solitary, action.
4. It crusades for the extended use of democratic method in all areas of life.

### SPECIFIC OBJECTIVES

The long-range goals just listed are, to be sure, necessary to any philosophy which would lead to the inclusion of a course in discussion in the curriculum. As they stand, however, many of them could apply to a variety of courses; and even, when applied to the discussion course, they leave the question, "By what specific goals do you intend to implement these long-range goals?"

On the basis of experience thus far, it seems safe to say that a course in discussion can be expected to:

1. Improve the ability of individuals to think straight.
2. Develop in individuals those attitudes which will make it possible for them to participate in discussion more effectively (*i.e.* fairness, "open-mindedness," *etc.*).
3. Increase the individual's awareness of the role of adequate preparation in successful discussion.

4. Give the individual techniques which will make it possible for him to function effectively as a leader in group discussion.
5. Create in individuals the habit of using the empirical method in thinking through or talking about a problem.
6. Provide individuals with techniques for engaging in rewarding self-analysis and group-analysis.
7. Improve the individual's skill in oral communication.
8. Reveal the possibilities in group thought (both for learning and problem-solving).
9. Acquaint individuals with the meaning and significance of important current issues.

All of these objectives, to be sure, rest on the assumption that thought and behavior patterns can be modified. Evidence seems to indicate that they can.

#### A POSSIBLE COURSE ORGANIZATION

While the personnel of a class, local circumstances, variation in the scholastic background of students, and other important variables may require that a course in discussion be handled in a variety of ways, it may prove useful to sketch the kind of units into which work in such a course could be divided. The number of units suggested here is determined on the basis of what seems to be a reasonable manner of dividing the subject matter, rather than on the basis of its adaptation to a given number of class meetings. It attempts to raise questions the answers to which, it is felt, the student must be able to comprehend and apply if the objective of the unit is to be considered achieved.

##### UNIT I—*The Nature of Discussion*

A. *How is discussion to be defined?* The provision of the answer to this question is crucial because of the popular tendency to think of such things as legislative "debate," and business meetings of all sorts, where people "argue things out," as synonymous with discussion. It is also important in determining whether the course is to restrict itself to "public discussion" or whether it intends to deal with discussion in its broader sense.

B. *How is discussion related to argument or persuasion?* Is it the opposite of these things? Or is it the supplement of these things? Or again, must we as individuals choose to use one of these methods to the exclusion of the other? Or can both methods be used as part of the same continuous thought process?

C. *How do co-operation and competition fit into discussion?* Are competition and co-operation mutually exclusive? Can they co-exist in a successful discussion?

D. *What is the "discussion method"?* Under what kind of circumstances does this method seem most useful? Under what circumstances does it seem limited in its usefulness?

E. *What do we know about the effects of discussion on individuals and groups?* A growing body of research now makes it possible to predict some of

the things which are likely to be true of people and groups when they participate in discussion.

#### UNIT II—Topics for Discussion

A. *How can we ask questions that are answerable?* At this point, practice and criticism in terms of the precision and clarity of wording in questions and sub-questions for discussion are necessary. The skills involved in learning how to ask answerable questions can have usefulness not only in discussion, but also in many other aspects of life.

B. *What factors must be kept in mind when choice of a discussion topic is being made?* Is it good policy to steer clear of "controversial" issues, or, on the other hand, purposely to seek them? How much must a group know or be able to find out about a topic before it can be considered a good one? How do time limits effect the choice of a topic?

C. *Can topics be usefully classified according to their general nature?* Does it make a difference in discussion to know that the group is undertaking a question of fact, rather than a question of policy or value?

#### UNIT III—An Orderly Approach to Problem-Solving

A. *Of what importance is order in discussion?* Oftentimes, in the popular conception, all that is asked of discussion is that it be spontaneous and energetic; whether it is willy-nilly rather than orderly is not felt to be too important in that view. At the same time, one of the most common kinds of criticism levelled at discussions is that "they didn't get anywhere"; "they didn't say anything, even though they talked a lot"; "they went around in circles," etc. An orderly approach, therefore, becomes a paramount concern.

B. *Is there a formula that would help a group think through its problems in an orderly, intelligent fashion?* John Dewey's description of the steps taken by any "objective" individual in the solution of personal problems which face him becomes, with little modification, a good guide for groups as well. As described by texts in the field, it commonly consists of (1) definition and delimitation of the problem, (2) analysis of the problem, (3) suggestion of hypotheses or solutions, (4) reasoned development of the hypotheses or solutions and choice of one, and (5) consideration of means of further verifying or applying the chosen solution. The formula has proven its fundamental soundness and can well become the basic pattern for organizing the discussions carried out during the course.

1. *What are some of the methods of definition?* Which ones seem to come closest to fitting into the "scientific method"?
2. *Of what importance is the listing of criteria by which to test solutions?* Wouldn't it be done just naturally in the course of talking about the solutions?
3. *How constantly should these criteria be kept in mind when hypotheses or solutions are being appraised?*

#### UNIT IV—Techniques of Preparing for Discussion

A. *By what means can an individual insure for himself a basic storehouse of knowledge?* What items ought to be included in a consistent reading diet? How can especially valuable materials be kept for future reference?

B. *What are some of the standard and special sources from which general or specific information can be secured?*

C. *What role should outlining play in the process of preparation?* Is it necessary that every discussion participant do it? Is it essential that the discussion leader do it? How extensive should the outline be? How should sources for facts, quotations, etc. be documented? What attitude should the individual adopt toward the problem as he formulates the outline?

D. *What physical provisions can be made ahead of time to insure maximum conditions for reflection and co-operative thought?*

#### UNIT V—Concepts of Leadership

A. *Who is a leader?* Is he a person specifically named by an individual or group to a position of responsibility? Can leadership be achieved in some other way? How?

B. *How is power related to leadership?* Is it possible for leadership to exist without power? From where does a leader's power come? How much of it does he have to have?

C. *What kinds of leaders are there?* If we observe other groups, both past and present, is it possible to classify the leadership exerted in them? What seem to be the effects of "authoritarian" leadership on group discussion; of "democratic" leadership on group discussion; etc.?

D. *What qualities of attitude and behavior in a leader seem to encourage maximum group growth?* Which of these can best be improved through training?

E. *What is implied in the concept of a leader's "working himself out of a job"?*

#### UNIT VI—Techniques of Leadership

A. *What special responsibilities does the leader have in the preparation phase?* What, for example, is his responsibility in connection with the physical conditions under which the meeting is held? Need he have contact with other members of the group prior to the discussion? Under what circumstances? How far should his personal research on the subject go?

B. *What are some of the techniques by which a leader can help a group get under way?* What possibilities are there in maps, diagrams, charts, etc.; in case studies; in straw polls taken by the chairman, etc.?

C. *What is the leader's minimum responsibility in the direction the discussion takes?* Should he be dissatisfied if the group strays from the organization he had envisioned? Should he outline the group's responsibilities as he sees them at the outset and hold the group to them? What should be his attitude if the group expresses a desire to go into an entirely different phase of the problem than that into which he had started them? When it comes to the direction the group takes, is the leader seen as a spectator, guide, director, referee?

D. *What can the leader do about reducing or resolving conflict?* Are there any alternatives left to him if an apparent impasse develops? Are there ways in which he can reduce the likelihood of an impasse developing? How can he deal with intrinsic conflict? Is a leader ever wise to let an "explosion" come within the group? Is a leader ever justified in arbitrarily silencing one or more members of an intra-group struggle?

E. *Under what circumstances, if any, is the leader justified in calling for a vote?*

F. *What responsibilities does the leader have for summarizing and concluding the discussion?* Special attention to be given to the kind of concluding statements a chairman may undertake to make.

G. *To what extent may a leader identify himself with the participants in a discussion?* Must he keep still, except for ruling on procedural matters? Is it ever wise for him to identify himself with one point of view or another in the discussion? What is likely to be the effect of his rising to the defense of one or several participants?

#### UNIT VII—Attitudes in Participation

A. *What is meant by "open-mindedness"?* Does it imply that a person must come to discussion without any convictions? Does it suggest that nothing can be known for sure? If it asks a person to hold whatever conclusions he does hold tentatively, is such a thing possible?

B. *What are the ways of knowing?* What attitudes are reflected in pragmatism, empiricism, rationalism, etc.? How do these attitudes affect discussion?

C. *What attitudes are essential to good listening in discussion?* What does poor listening do to discussion? What factors lead to poor listening? How can a person become a better listener?

D. *What attitudes are required for an individual's understanding of another person's point-of-view?* What role do patience, willingness-to-delay, willingness to re-state, etc., play in achieving understanding of another person's viewpoint? Can a specific, step-by-step formula be devised for helping a person achieve such an understanding?

#### UNIT VIII—Techniques in Participation

A. *When (how often) should a person talk in discussion?* What constitutes "appropriate" participation? What characteristics mark "inappropriate" participation?

B. *How can a person evaluate what others in the group say?* What are the tests for evidence, both example and expert opinion? How can the validity of cause and effect reasoning be determined? How can muddled or fallacious reasoning be spotted?

C. *How can facts and expert opinion be presented so as to be helpful to the group?* Is it possible for presentation of factual material to stifle, rather than stimulate, group discussion? How can that happen or be avoided?

D. *What is the "empirical method" of participation?* What is its particular value to discussion method? What does it require of the person who uses it? Can it be applied universally in discussion to good effect?

E. *What devices are available for helping make explanations clear in discussion?* What kinds of definition are available to the participant? What roles can definition by classification or definition by gradation play? What visual aids are available to the participant? Do charts, maps, graphs, etc. have to be acquired only from published sources? What techniques are available to the individual who wants to create his own visual aids?

F. *What are the minimum essentials in the use of voice, physical demeanor, etc., if the discussion is to be effective?* What are the marks of good conversation? To what extent do they apply to discussion?

#### UNIT IX—Interpersonal Relations

A. *What are some of the sources of conflict between individuals?* Can individuals come to an understanding of their own personality characteristics which lead them into conflict with others? To what extent can such characteristics be modified? By what means can they be modified?



B. *Is it possible to identify the role played by the various members of a group? Even if it is possible to do so, is it helpful? What roles must be filled if a group is to proceed rewardingly?*

C. *How does the attitude of one member of the group affect the work of the remainder of the group? Can, for example, an "indifferent" member be thought of as having no effect on the group? Or does his presence make a difference in the amount of work the group gets done, the quality of that work, etc.?*

D. *Is it profitable for a group to attempt an analysis of its own interpersonal relations? How can it go about such analysis without doing injury to some of the group? What questions can it profitably ask itself? How frequently can the exercise be participated in with benefit? Or is all such analysis better left to an outside party, an observer?*

#### UNIT X—Types and Forms of Discussion

A. *What general purposes can discussion serve? Must its end always be problem-solving? Or may it involve simply the stimulation of thought, or the imparting of information? Of what value is it as an educational device? Is it ever justified for use in disseminating "propaganda"?*

B. *To serve the above purposes, what forms of discussion have been found to be useful? What is the detailed organization of meetings involving round-table, symposium, dialogue, lecture-forum, etc.? To what circumstances is each of the forms best adapted? What requirements does each make in terms of physical facilities, personnel, audience attitude, etc.?*

#### SOME WAYS OF OPERATING A COURSE IN DISCUSSION

It is patent that a person does not become an effective discussion participant by reading (or even hearing talk about) discussion theory. Nowhere in the field of education is the value of the learning-by-doing principle more clearly apparent than in discussion. Groups grow, it has been discovered, as they increase the experience they have had together, especially if this experience has been accompanied by criticism. On the other hand, difficulties and serious breakdowns appear to occur more frequently in groups in which participants have had little or no experience with the discussion method.

A course in discussion, therefore, ought to provide students a maximum opportunity for actual participation (a possible division of time might allow one third for explanation of principles and theory; two thirds for practice and criticism). This can be achieved through use, over and over again, of a cycle involving the following steps: (1) presentation of a principle, (2) application of the theory presented in an actual discussion experience, (3) analysis of the experience by the group itself, and (4) analysis of the experience by an observer (instructor). In the course of a semester, it should be possible to follow such a cycle almost as often as there are units in the above course plan. Under such circumstances, provided the criticism is competently and

sensitively done, it ought to be entirely reasonable to expect achievement of the objectives outlined earlier in this article.

But when it is suggested that at least two thirds of a student's time in such a course should be spent in practice, what kind of discussion experiences are envisioned? The question requires a number of different answers. To begin with, exercises for such a course should likely proceed from simple types to more complex types. Early experiences should take place in small, informal groups approximating a conversational situation. Some teachers have felt it valuable to subdivide their group into groups of five or six each for such purposes. The advantages of the small group are obvious. Not only does it give everyone opportunity for more participation, but it also encourages participation from everyone by reducing the individual tensions usually felt in a large group. After several experiences in groups of this sort, advanced discussions involving the whole group can be used; and still later, some of the special forms (dialogue, panel, symposium, etc.) can be used.

Paralleling this, increasing complexity of form can be variation in the kinds of topics used. Early topics should concern themselves with important problems within the experience of the students. (How can the parking problem be solved at our school? Should a school like ours attempt to publish a weekly newspaper? How can our activities program be improved?) Questions like these provide a ready fund of material and a possibility of solution. As the group gains facility in using the discussion method, topics can range to the more complex. (Questions such as: Should Western Germany be rearmed? Should the United States adopt a program of universal military training? etc.)

It needs to be said, at this point, that whatever else may be true of the topics used, they should be of practical significance to those discussing them. Skills and attitudes which will help students into useful citizenship can hardly be acquired through practice with "trivia" or "small talk." The fact is, the course in discussion provides an excellent opportunity for curricular integration. Issues which arise in courses in history, economics, literature, the sciences, and elsewhere can profitably become the basis for the experiences in discussion.

One of the most frequently heard criticisms of discussion as a method is that it does not provide adequate motivation for careful preparation. The charge, alas, is too often true. Even in the face of fruitless experiences, too many groups continue to think of discussion as simply a matter of "sitting down to talk." But we know that inadequate preparation is not inherent in the use of discussion as a method. Any course in discussion, therefore, ought to give heavy attention to

the ways of preparing to talk over a question. Students should be provided with helps as to where they can go to gather information, how they can read profitably, how they can save material which looks promising, how they can organize what they save, and how they can order their thoughts on a problem once the process of inquiry has been engaged in.

Tangible evidence of careful research and information-gathering should be required before a student is allowed to participate in discussion (*i.e.* in the form of outlines, card files, bibliographies, *etc.*), and at least part of the criticism of discussion ought to deal with the quantity and quality of information brought by each individual. In short, it is extremely important that no student in the discussion course be rewarded for "talking through his hat." The "glib" fellow, the "smooth" customer, needs to be found out, lest he proceed into the stream of human affairs under the impression that his facade is, after all, the real thing.

#### EVALUATING WORK IN DISCUSSION

Assuming that a course in discussion is instituted, what means have we for measuring (1) its effect on the student, and (2) its worth as an educational enterprise? Let it be admitted, in connection with the first part of the question, that it is not as easy to evaluate performance in discussion as it is, for example, to measure growth in solving mathematical problems. At the same time, techniques for observing discussion are constantly being improved. An indication of the extent to which they can become reliable is seen in the fact that at the Harvard Institute of Human Relations a number of observers, rating discussion contributions in some twelve different categories, achieved over ninety per cent agreement. Discussion can be observed much more objectively than had previously been thought possible. Typical of the kind of checklist used to evaluate performance in discussion is one on which each participant is rated (1) Poor, (2) Fair, (3) Adequate, (4) Good, and (5) Excellent on the following items:

*Information.* Knowledge of the problem revealed in the discussion.

*Attitude.* Open-mindedness. Willingness to contribute to group effort.

*Thinking.* Skill in reflective thinking and logical reasoning.

*Communication.* Clarity and skill in use of voice, language, *etc.*

*Participation.* Appropriate amount of verbal activity.

All kinds of variants are, of course, possible; but the elements listed above commonly form the basic core of evaluation. Ratings like these, by a competent instructor, for each of eight to ten discussion experiences, can provide a rather reliable graph of student growth.

Not all evaluation, however, need seek mechanical precision. In fact, a clinical kind of observation seems to have a great deal of value. That is to say, the trained observer, on the basis of carefully recorded notes, following each session, gives the group a "feedback" (critical report) of what went on during the discussion. He may comment on the interpersonal relations evident in the course of the hour (antagonisms between group members; efforts to dominate; apparent development of groups within the group; *etc.*), or he may trace the reasoning employed (exposing specious reasoning, hasty generalization, *etc.*). Any aspect of group life and growth becomes a possible point for treatment in his critique. He discusses these things, however, within the limits of his training, and in the full knowledge that he may be confronted occasionally with personality problems in group members which are beyond the proper scope of his work. When and if he deems the group mature enough and solid enough, he may invite them to join the "feedback" period by way of registering reactions of their own. He may, as a matter of fact, stimulate the group to feel a responsibility for pausing and looking at itself whenever it runs into difficulty. The importance of the habit of self-analysis in group behavior, as a possible objective for the course in discussion, can hardly be over-emphasized.

What we have said thus far about evaluation might, in other words, be stated something like this: The attitudes and skills revealed by an individual in discussion can be improved through the educational process. These attitudes and skills can be reliably observed and helpfully reported to the student. The student can, in fact, learn how to analyze his own behavior in the group. Understanding the nature of the attitudes and skills he reflects, the student has the basis for knowing what he must do to become a more effective group member.

It may be possible, then, to make adequate evaluations of what happens to individuals in discussion. Is it possible, at the same time, to evaluate discussion as an educational enterprise? One way to ascertain the answer might be found in making systematic observations on the performance of students who have had the discussion course in subsequent courses which they take? What effect does their presence have in the class? What about their ability to think problems through? What about the scope of their interests? What about their attitudes (are they more or less dogmatic than the norm? more or less impatient with differing points of view? more or less concerned with current issues? *etc.*)? In short, does the discussion course prove to have any value in the general educational process? The conviction of many educators is that it does.

## SOME MISCONCEPTIONS CONCERNING THE COURSE IN DISCUSSION

Because of the fact that the study of the dynamics of group behavior has so recently come into focus, and perhaps also because the course in discussion has been so widely regarded as an academic luxury (something which could be quite adequately taken care of in extra-curricular form), some rather serious misconceptions are listed.

1. *The Seven-Easy-Lessons Concept.* There are those who think of the discussion course as a quick, easy way to equip students with subtle communication skills which will make it possible for them to manipulate people at will once they enter the world of affairs. They see in it a formula for success in conference or committee situations of all sorts. The concept is an exceedingly dangerous one, since the discussion method rests for its validity on the reflective search for truth, as compared, for example, with advocacy. Even if an individual were able to acquire a bag of tricks by which he could manipulate other group members, his ultimate effect on the group, according to discussion theory, would be one of disintegration and obstruction. Training in discussion proceeds from the assumption that there is need for the co-operative function in group problem-solving. It cannot, therefore, rightly be seen as equipping individuals with competitive techniques.

2. *The Panel Concept.* Perhaps the most stereotyped concept of discussion courses is that they train people how to participate on a "panel" (the term usually used loosely to describe the situation in which members of the panel each make a speech and questions from the audience follow). The popularity of radio discussion programs has perhaps helped to generate this concept. Discussion is seen actually as a series of speeches followed by a question-and-answer period. On the surface such a concept appears harmless. It is, after all, a good way to get important issues before the public, isn't it? It gives information and stimulates thought, doesn't it? Tagging it as a misconception of the course in discussion is not meant to imply its uselessness as a form. The "panel" (or more correctly "symposium-forum") is a very effective form of public discussion. At the same time, if discussion is thought of as training for participation on "panels," the concept has two serious disadvantages: (1) It limits training to "public discussion" whereas by far the largest contact students are likely to have with the discussion method in later life is in forms of private discussion (committees, conferences, interviews, etc.); and (2) because it emphasized training for "public" presentation, it is likely to overlook, or in any case under-emphasize, those things fundamental to discussion as a method (i.e. reflective thought, convictions tentatively held, dynamic listening, etc.). The concern over this particular misconception is no idle one, since it represents the form in which a good many discussion courses are being offered today. If it is to be justified educationally, the course in discussion must take the broader view and must start with fundamentals.

## SOME NEW DIRECTIONS

The very fact that courses in discussion are relatively young in academic circles should, perhaps, make them more sensitive to new

directions, more willing to try new tacks. Those who deal with such courses can hardly afford to take any other view. In the struggle to make our advances in the social sciences match our progress in the natural sciences, we are learning new things about group behavior; and the chances are that we shall see the rate of discovery increase. We ought, therefore, be ready to re-evaluate our approach to training in discussion in the light of findings in group dynamics, general semantics, group therapy, and other disciplines that have the human group under the microscope. Discoveries to date suggest at least two new directions:

1. *Increased training in the attitudes and skills involved in listening.* Dr. A. J. Roethlisberger<sup>2</sup> has suggested that perhaps the greatest single obstacle to successful oral communication is to be found in the failure of one or both parties to the act of communication to evaluate correctly the intent and meaning of the other. If his statement is valid, we need to shift our emphasis from so much attention to dynamic speaking in discussion to more attention to dynamic listening. Actually, the making of "intellectual detectives," people who are imbued with a sincere eagerness to understand another person's point-of-view, may be more important in the long view than the production of articulate contributors. There are ways of improving listening habits. The course in discussion ought to find them, make them available to group members, and provide the opportunity for the formation of the new and better listening habits.

2. *The concept of discussion leadership has also become somewhat stereotyped.* New research raises questions, however. Have we, in the past, condoned the exercise of too much power by the discussion leader? Have we tended to separate him too much from the other group members? Is it possible that even enlightened, good-natured, sympathetic, generous "guidance" is not enough to guarantee group growth? Is it possible that even under the "democratic" leader some group members are prevented from realizing their individual potentialities in the life of the group? Could a group gradually grow into the assumption of responsibility for its own leadership? These are, of course, leading questions. New information suggests that at least some of them may be answerable in the affirmative. Perhaps a new direction is needed in our approach to leadership training.

There are other new directions which no doubt need to be taken. No effort is made here to be comprehensive concerning them. But the hope is expressed that wherever the course in discussion is instituted, it will be handled by instructors who are sensitive to developments in the social sciences and who exemplify in their willingness constantly to re-evaluate old assumptions, the very principles of reflective, co-operative thinking which they seek to teach.

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<sup>2</sup>In an address delivered in connection with Northwestern University Centennial, October 11, 1951.

## CHAPTER V

# A Secondary School Course in Argumentation

J. WALTER REEVES

**I**N a democracy it is important that any questions confronting the state or nation should have all points of view considered. A democracy cannot exist as such unless all phases of the question have a chance to be presented. Our Congress is often criticized because of its prolonged debates; yet it would not function well unless all ramifications of the proposed laws were considered. It is equally important that each one of these proposals should be brought under close scrutiny. It is just as important in a democracy to be destructive as to be constructive. We must attack the bad arguments before we can effectively present new ones.

It is highly desirable that all societies, clubs, and organizations of any kind in a democracy should follow the same basic rules of open consideration—rules governing the conduct of argumentation and debate. It should be the purpose of a course in argumentation to set forth these rules—to present in organized form the body of technique which is vitally important to the thorough and effective deliberation of a motion, proposition, or resolution. It is to be hoped that an understanding of these rules will enable the participants in such a deliberation to start at a precise point, to proceed with little or no confusion, and to arrive at a conclusion which is similarly precise and meaningful.

A simple definition of argumentation is that it is the endeavor to have other people accept and act upon one's conclusions. The result may be immediate action, such as voting in favor of or against a proposition, or the quickening of the listener's thought along the line which one has proposed. If the definition just presented is accepted in its general sense, a course in argumentation is a preparation for life because there are few situations in which there is not a conscious or unconscious effort to have others accept one's point of view.

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Certainly the salesman, the lawyer, the minister, the teacher, the doctor are attempting to have their conclusions accepted and acted upon.

A course in argumentation, properly conceived, should provide the student with information concerning such topics as: (1) Propositions for Argument and Debate; (2) Means of Getting Material; (3) Means of Analyzing the Proposition; (4) Brief-Making; (5) Evidence; (6) Reasoning; (7) Means of Refutation; (8) The Nature of Persuasion; (9) Style; and (10) Delivery. In fact, it may well be said that these are the indispensable units of such a course. To omit any of these units is to encourage sophistry on the one hand, or inadequate "energizing" of the methods of logic on the other hand.

#### UNIT ONE: PROPOSITIONS FOR ARGUMENT

At the outset the student in this course should be introduced to such important principles concerning the "proposition" as the following. The endeavor should be made to find or use a proposition which is of interest to both the speaker and the audience. Furthermore, it should be one of importance. This proposition should be stated in the form of a simple declarative sentence, such as: "The President of the United States should be elected for one term of six years." This is a definite assertion that something should be done. The affirmative says "Yes" to the proposition, and attempts to prove it; whereas the negative usually says "No," and proceeds to defend its position. Further principles governing suitable propositions may be stated as follows:

1. Propositions for argument or debate should be debatable. That is, they should be propositions that are not obviously true or false; and they should also be propositions where an approximate decision can be made. No near decision can be found for propositions like the following: "Fire is more destructive than water."

2. The proposition should be a complete assertion, and should be only one assertion.

3. A proposition should not be too broad. There should be a limitation so that there will not be too much ground to cover. For instance, the proposition "Our tax system should be revised" is too broad; it would be better to state it in such words as "Our Federal income tax should be increased five per cent."

4. The proposition should not contain ambiguous words. Where there are two or more meanings in words or phrases, there is always likely to be confusion in the argument.

5. The proposition should be stated affirmatively. It is logical for the affirmative to be the aggressor—to stand for a change or to



express dissatisfaction with the *status quo*. Thus the question should be so stated that when the affirmative says "Yes," it will be standing for such a change or arguing against existing conditions. If the proposition concerning the Presidency were to be stated: "The present system of electing the President of the United States should be continued," the affirmative would be arguing for the *status quo* rather than for a change.

#### UNIT TWO: GETTING THE MATERIAL

As the second step in the development of skills in argumentation and debate, the student should be acquainted with the many sources of material. It is well to encourage the student first to exhaust his own storehouse of information; then to talk personally with authorities whenever possible. He should be encouraged to supplement these sources with intensive use of the library and all of its resources, referring, in particular to the *Reader's Guide*, which is the index of all magazine articles that have been written on virtually any subject. Books, encyclopedias, and specialized sources of material from information bureaus, public relations offices, and similar agencies may also be used in this process of investigation.

In harmony with the best of educational principles and procedures, the student should be reminded that the "investigation phase" of preparation for argumentation is of great importance. Here is a point at which the teacher can carefully guard against the possibility of superficiality in preparation, with its inevitable outcome in the form of lack of adequate substance in the day-to-day practice of argumentation and debate.

#### UNIT THREE: ANALYZING THE PROPOSITION

Here the student of argumentation needs to be reminded that the participants and the listeners should understand clearly just what the proposition means. The point needs to be made that if there are terms which need definition, it is necessary to see that they are clearly defined. Or, again, that on occasion the two sides in a debate may agree co-operatively on a definition of certain terms in the proposition before the debate itself begins.

Further instruction in this area of argumentation should develop concepts of analysis, including the fact that *issues* are the fundamental questions in a debate about which the entire argument revolves. Furthermore, it may be helpful to present the concept of "stock issues" as a basis of analysis, calling attention to the fact that the basic issues are usually:

1. Is a change necessary?
2. Will the proposed change prove beneficial?
3. Is the proposed plan practicable?

It should be made clear that the affirmative will say "Yes" to these questions and attempt to prove them, whereas the negative will ordinarily say "No" and attempt to sustain its case (the exception to the rule concerning a "No" answer is seen in the negative case which agrees that a change is necessary but which presents its own counter-proposal).

#### UNIT FOUR: BRIEF-MAKING

In furthering the student's knowledge of, and competence in, argumentation and debate, the course should acquaint him with information pertaining to the nature and usefulness of brief-making. Such principles as the following may well be included in this phase of the course.

A brief is a complete plan for an argument. It shows where the different parts belong and indicates their relative importance. It is as necessary to the arguer as a blueprint is to an architect; it gives a picture of the argument. The difference between an outline and a brief is that the brief has for each step a complete statement, together with evidence, whereas the outline suggests the different steps by a word or phrase or, occasionally, a complete statement. The following rules for briefing represent what may be considered to be the best of principle and practice:

1. A brief should be divided into Introduction, Proof, and Conclusion.
2. Each heading of the brief should be one complete statement.
3. The Introduction should contain all the steps necessary for an understanding of the proposition, such as:
  - a. Reasons for the present interest in the proposition
  - b. History of the question
  - c. Definition of the question
  - d. Statement of the main issues
4. The Introduction should not contain statements which need proof.
5. Each step throughout the brief should have a symbol and indentation which indicate its relative position in the argument.

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I. -----, for
  A. -----, for
    1. -----, for
      a. -----, for
        (1) -----, for
    2. -----, for
  B. -----, for
II. -----, for
  
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6. In the Proof, each statement should support the statement to which it is subordinated.
7. If a statement is from an authority, state in parentheses the source of the evidence.
8. In briefing points of refutation, state clearly the argument to be refuted.
9. The Conclusion should contain a restatement of the main issues, followed by an affirmation or denial of the proposition itself.

#### UNIT FIVE: EVIDENCE

In conformity with the assumptions laid down at the outset, this course should devote considerable time to the topic of evidence. Here is an opportunity to inculcate habits of careful support of propositions and of proper documentation of material used to advance one's argument. Such principles as the following may well be included in this unit.

Evidence is the cornerstone of proof, which has as its two constituents: evidence and reasoning. Evidence is made up of facts and expert opinions. There are two principal kinds of evidence: direct and indirect. The former is that which comes from those who testify from their own observation and experience; the latter, on the other hand, consists of inferences or conclusions which are drawn from established facts. Thomas Huxley well illustrates the difference between direct and indirect evidence in this way: "Suppose that a man tells you that he saw a person strike another and kill him; that is testimonial (direct) evidence of the fact of the murder. But it is possible to have circumstantial (indirect) evidence of the fact of the murder; that is to say, you may find a man dying with a wound upon his head having exactly the form and character of the wound which is made by an ax. You may conclude that the man has been murdered; and that his death is the consequence of a blow inflicted by another man with the implement." Further related facts, such as finding a man in the vicinity with such an implement and with a motive for the crime, would be likely to result in the conclusion that he was guilty of the crime.

Since our own observation and experience are bound to be limited in the great field of facts, we must naturally rely upon the observation and experience of others. We must be certain that these others are real authorities, that is, that they have based their conclusions on facts. Incidentally, we are under a great obligation to these people who may have spent a lifetime in collecting the facts from which they draw their conclusions. The least that we can do is to give them credit by naming the authority.

However, because not all persons who are regarded as authorities are actually authorities, it behooves us to scrutinize them and apply certain important tests. The more significant of these tests are as follows:

1. The authority must be capable; he must be a specialist in his field. Incidentally, in some cases the speaker may be the best authority; and in these cases his argument will be strengthened if he can testify out of his own experience. For example, he can perhaps speak with assurance as to whether or not his playing on a major athletic team makes it difficult for him to apply himself to his studies.
2. The authority should not be prejudiced. It is sometimes difficult to distinguish between a capable authority who comes to a certain conclusion and a partisan who comes to the same conclusion as a result of what we call prejudice. However, every effort should be made to realize that the capable authority keeps an open mind and weighs both sides of the argument before he draws a conclusion, whereas the prejudiced authority starts out with a firm conviction that only one conclusion can be drawn. In other words, the latter fails to keep an open mind while he is considering the question. For example, a student who plays football would be likely to be prejudiced when it comes to the question of whether or not the school should withdraw from interscholastic competition.
3. The authority should carry weight with the audience. A man may be an excellent authority and yet be unknown to the audience, or the audience may have a feeling of antagonism toward him. If it is important that you should use such a person, it will be necessary for you, in the first place, to explain why he is a specialist in his field; and in the second case, to try to offset the prejudice. In both instances valuable time has been taken, and these persons should be used only as a last resort.
4. The authority should be definite. It is important that you should state definitely who the authority is. It is not enough that you should say that "a prominent statesman" made the following statement. We want to know who he is so that we can apply the tests of capability and freedom from prejudice. He may seem to you to be both capable and unprejudiced, but we must have the opportunity to scrutinize him. It is well, furthermore, to make clear in what circumstance he made such a statement. Finally, care should always be taken to give the full context of the statement attributed to the authority.

It is perhaps not an overstatement to say that one of the most important contributions of a course in argumentation and debate may arise at this very point. To the extent that a person can gain an un-

derstanding of, and skill in, the nature and use of evidence, he will be making substantial strides in the process of becoming truly "educated."

#### UNIT SIX: REASONING

Reasoning is the process of analyzing evidence, of seeing relationships among facts and expert opinions, and of drawing a conclusion. Man is the only animal that is able to do this, and his supremacy is largely due to this faculty of reasoning. The human mind starts with facts which are related, and infers or concludes that something is true. His conclusion is, to a certain extent, a leap in the dark, for if the result is an absolute certainty, the process would not be reasoning in the strict sense of the term. It should be understood, however, that if certain rules are followed in this mental process, the conclusion may be practically certain. In fact, the courts often deprive a man of his life as a result of circumstantial evidence.

In conformity with the basic assumptions of this course in argumentation, considerable time should be devoted to this all-important topic of reasoning. As in the case of the unit on evidence, here is an opportunity to inculcate habits of careful thinking—to discourage students from making haphazard or superficial judgments. Such principles as the following may well be included in this unit.

There are two kinds of reasoning: inductive and deductive. The former is a process of inferring that what is true of certain members of a class is true of the class as a whole. The latter (deductive) is the process of inferring that what is true of a whole class is true of a member of the class. The former begins with the individual and leads into the general or the class; the latter is just the opposite, as it begins with the class and leads out to the individual, giving the individual the same characteristics that obtain for the class.

##### I. INDUCTIVE REASONING (Three kinds: Generalization, Analogy, and Causal Relationship)

A. *Generalization.* This is the purest form of inductive reasoning. It assumes that what is true of a number of members of a class is true of the class as a whole. For instance, we know that a number of high schools in our vicinity have basketball teams; therefore, we assume that all high schools have basketball teams. Our conclusion or assumption that all high schools have basketball teams cannot be known for a certainty unless we have examined all high schools. However, in such a case no reasoning would be involved

because we would have direct evidence based upon a survey of each school. The conclusion at which we have arrived as a result of the examination of a certain number of high schools is likely to be approximately true, and for all practical purposes is a safe assumption. It is often the case that the conclusion comes first in a generalization, followed by the individual instances, which are submitted as proof. For instance, it is generally assumed that vaccination against diphtheria will prevent the contraction of the disease because (the individual instances) a great many children who have been vaccinated and were exposed to the disease did not contract it. In order to be reasonably safe in our reasoning through generalization, we must apply certain tests to the process.

1. Have you examined a sufficient number of members of the class to warrant your drawing of the generalization or conclusion? If the class is large, you must—generally speaking—examine a larger number of the individual members. For instance, there are thousands of high schools in the United States. You would not assume that they all have basketball or football teams until you know that a considerable number of them scattered throughout different localities than your own have such teams. Furthermore, health authorities would not require vaccination unless it has been proved that *hundreds* of children who had been vaccinated did not contract the disease when they were exposed to children who had it.
2. Are the members which you have examined *typical* members of the class? It is not safe to draw the conclusion that any or all athletes in a school can engage in three major sports and expect to pass all their work just because John, James, and Bob have been able to do so. John, James, and Bob may be exceptionally bright students; and therefore, they are not typical of the general run of students.
3. Be sure that there are not too many exceptions to the rule to prove the generalization. The number of exceptions to disprove the rule varies in different cases, but usually depends upon the number in the class about which you are generalizing. For instance, if a farmer buys seed for sweet corn and asks for the Golden Bantam variety, he is not going to be materially hampered if there are

occasional seeds of another variety. If, on the other hand, a basketball enthusiast states that all who come out for the sport are benefited by that sport and it is discovered that one out of the twenty on the squad developed heart trouble and died, then his reasoning is thoroughly bad. The one exception in this small class is sufficient to endanger the generalization.

- B. *Analogy.* Reasoning by analogy is the process of assuming that what is true of one member of a class is true of another member of that class. It is the comparison of similar objects and the assumption that what is true of one is true of the other. In this comparison, we take what we know to be true of one member about which we know a great deal, and compare it with another member about which we know nothing except that it belongs to the same class. Then we draw the conclusion that what is true of the known member will also be true of the unknown member. For instance, we are familiar with our high school and know that it has a dramatic club. We know that the Tempe High School is similar to ours in that it is coeducational and has students of the same age as ours. We presume that the students of Tempe High School have the same interests as our own students; therefore, we assume (infer) that because our school has a dramatic club, the Tempe school has a similar club.

Reasoning by analogy is a great saver of time and labor. It profits by past experience. For instance, the student who desires to enter Princeton University observes that a friend of his who was graduated from high school last year was able to enter that university, and that he was an industrious student. On the other hand, another friend of his who desired to enter the same university but was an indifferent student, failed to make it. The first student will reason (by analogy) that he must follow the example of the industrious student if he is to attain his desire. Reasoning by analogy is used a great deal in everyday living, in informal argument, and in debating. We are continually drawing conclusions that what is true in one case will be true in similar cases. Some of the more important tests of reasoning by analogy are:

1. Be certain that the points of likeness outweigh the points of difference. It should be understood that the *number* of similarities or differences is not the matter to be considered,



but, rather, their *importance*. One important difference may outweigh all the similarities. For instance, John and James, two brothers with the same family background and the same training in the local school, may desire to enter the same university. The older one is admitted to his chosen institution. The younger one may reason that he also can gain admission to the same university. He may not, however, take into consideration the one difference, that the older brother is gifted with a higher native ability. This one difference may *outweigh* all the similarities.

2. Be certain that the points of difference are adequately explained. In other words, if there are differences between the two persons or members being compared, these should be carefully explained in terms of quantitative and qualitative considerations. This process is necessary in the interests of both clarity and persuasiveness.

C. *Causal Relation*. There is a universal law in nature that every cause will produce an effect, and that every effect must be the result of some cause. The same cause will produce the same effect every time unless something enters to prevent the effect from taking place. There are two types of causal relation: cause to effect, and effect to cause:

1. Reasoning from cause to effect. In reasoning from cause to effect, we have the cause given, and we assume that a certain effect will take place as a result of the given cause. A certain political party, for instance, assumes that, if it elects its presidential candidate, prosperity will be the result. Also, a basketball team assumes that if it practices diligently, it will win all of its games. A teen-age girl assumes that, if she learns to dance, she will have plenty of dates. To infer (or assume) that these effects will always take place is dangerous, however, unless we are careful to apply certain tests:

- a. Is the cause adequate to produce the assumed effect?

For instance, is isolation a sufficient cause to produce peace? Was the practice of the basketball team sufficient to produce a well-integrated team which would win all of its games?

- b. Are we certain that the known cause may not be prevented from producing the assumed effect? Many times a cause may be sufficient to produce the assumed effect, but something enters to prevent the effect from



taking place. For example, a child may be exposed to diphtheria, which is cause enough to contract the disease; but an earlier inoculation against the disease is sufficient reason to prevent the usual effect from taking place. A well-trained swimming team may expect to win over its competitors; but the absence of some of the best swimmers—due to sickness—may prevent the expected effect from taking place.

2. Reasoning from effect to cause. We often have an effect and are in doubt about the cause. A student fails in his examination. He may be inclined to give as the cause the fact that he was not feeling well when he took the examination. An athlete failed to make the team, and he assumed that the cause was that the coach didn't like him. This kind of reasoning is dangerous unless we are careful to scrutinize it and apply such tests as the following:

- a. Is the assumed cause adequate to produce the known effect? For instance, is the cause given by the student for failing his examination sufficient to produce the known effect? In other words, was his not feeling well a sufficient cause for his failure?
- b. Is there some other cause than the assumed one which was the real cause for the known effect? The athlete who inferred that the reason he did not make the team was the fact that the coach didn't like him may have been in error. The likelihood is that the real cause was that he was not good enough to be included.

## II. DEDUCTIVE REASONING

We have dealt with inductive reasoning, where we infer that what is true of a number of members of a class is true of the class as a whole. In deductive reasoning we infer that what is true of the class as a whole is true of any typical member of that class. It moves in the opposite direction from inductive reasoning; it moves from the general to the particular. It starts with generalizations built up by inductive reasoning.

Deductive reasoning is made up of three distinct steps, these steps forming what we call a syllogism. Each step is a complete statement: (1) major premise; (2) minor premise; (3) conclusion. For example:

*Major Premise:* All high schools have baseball teams.

*Minor Premise:* The Roosevelt School is a high school.

*Conclusion:* The Roosevelt School has a baseball team.

It can be seen that the major premise is arrived at inductively, for we would not make a general statement that all high schools have baseball teams unless we had knowledge that a number of high schools did have such teams. After being reasonably certain that our major premise is true, we then feel fairly safe in taking a short-cut and inferring that what is true of high schools in general is true of the particular school we have in mind. There are many instances in which an immense amount of time is saved in drawing a conclusion about an unknown member when we know that something is true of the class as a whole.

It should be observed that we rarely encounter deductive reasoning in its full syllogistic form. The syllogism is usually abbreviated by omitting one step, the result being what is commonly called an Enthymeme. Thus we say: All high schools have athletic coaches; therefore, the Roosevelt School has an athletic coach. Here we have omitted the minor premise. Or we may have the following: John Smith is a United States Senator; therefore, John Smith knows parliamentary law. Here we have omitted the major premise that all United States Senators know parliamentary law. The following are some of the important tests of deductive reasoning:

- a. We must be reasonably certain that the major premise is true. We cannot proceed logically with a faulty major premise such as: "All doctors are successful," for there are many exceptions to this statement.
- b. The individual mentioned in the minor premise must be a typical and true member of the class mentioned in the major premise. For instance, if we reason that "All high schools have dramatic clubs; St. Paul is a high school; therefore, St. Paul has a dramatic club," before we can draw the conclusion that St. Paul has a dramatic club, we must be sure that St. Paul is a high school, and that it is a typical member of the class of high schools.
- c. The conclusion must follow logically. After we have determined that the individual mentioned in the minor premise is a member of the class mentioned in the major premise, then we must assert only of that individual that which we have assumed to be true of the major premise. Take the example: "All high schools have dramatic clubs; South Side is a high school; therefore, South Side has a debating team." Here the conclusion doesn't logically follow, for we have established no reason for such a conclusion.

As previously observed, it is not an over-statement to say that one of the most important contributions of a course in argumentation and debate may arise from a careful study of the reasoning process. Shoddy thinking, snap judgments, and uncritical observations will, as demonstrated by experimental evidence submitted in a subsequent article, frequently be offset by the training provided through this unit.

#### UNIT SEVEN: MEANS OF REFUTATION

Refutation in its simplest aspect is the tearing down of your opponent's arguments. It also includes the destroying of doubts about the validity of your own arguments. Necessarily, therefore, a unit on this important aspect of advocacy should be included in a well-conceived course in argumentation. The following principles might be included:

Rebuttal and refutation, although not entirely alike, are much the same. Both have to do with weakening our opponent's arguments and re-establishing our own. Refutation should be introduced into an argument where it will do the most good—not necessarily be reserved for a particular time or place. Its most effective use is likely to be at the beginning of one's argument provided your opponent has preceded you. If he has left the strong impression that his arguments are valid and strong, it is wise to attack them and show their weakness before trying to establish your own arguments. If the opponent has established a good case and if you allow it to stand while you proceed to establish your own case, the listeners will be somewhat confused and will inevitably try to equate the value of each. If, however, you are successful in creating a doubt about the validity of his arguments, the listeners will be much more receptive to your constructive case.

In refutation it is important to make clear just what point you are attacking. Confusion is likely to result if you assail your opponent's arguments without pointing out definitely just what argument you are attacking. Be specific and clearly state the argument. For example: "My opponent has stated that the National Health Plan of Great Britain is successful. This is not true for the following reasons. . . ."

Generally speaking, refutation or rebuttal is accomplished by pointing out that your opponent's argument will not withstand the tests which we apply to the use of authorities or to the process of reasoning. These tests which have been set forth earlier in this article are excellent tools to use in attacking authorities and reasoning.

#### UNIT EIGHT: THE NATURE OF PERSUASION

In order that the student can be made to understand that argumentation and debate are more than a "coldly logical" process, the course which

we have in mind should include an important unit in persuasion. It seems desirable to present such principles as the following.

Man is an emotional creature, and is quite often moved more by an appeal to his emotions than to his intellect. The more intelligent the audience, the more will it be influenced by an appeal to the intellect. In most cases, however, a judicious use of the two appeals will be most effective. It should be understood that an emotional appeal, if not abused, has a rightful place in an argument. It is true that a Hitler, a Mussolini, an agitator can move an audience to action by arousing their hatred and their jealousy or by advancing a nationalism of the worst kind; but it does not necessarily follow that all attempts to stir emotions are bad.

A persuasive speaker will be modest, fair, and sincere. Modesty is important if one is to gain the good will of the audience. There must be nothing which keeps the audience from being attentive to what the speaker is saying. If the speaker is egotistical or loudly dressed, the attention of the audience is likely to be diverted to the individual rather than to what he is saying. This is to be deplored.

The speaker should be fair. He should be willing to concede that there are two sides to any proposition that is worth debating. Fairness also implies honesty. There should not be any attempt to manufacture authorities for the occasion, nor to quote from an authority certain incomplete statements which would lead the audience to believe that this authority is in favor of something when in reality he is not.

Sincerity is important in influencing an audience. If you expect others to believe you, you must give evidence of believing thoroughly in what you are saying. Confidence that you have truth on your side begets confidence. A disinterested attitude on the part of the speaker will bring about a lack of interest on the part of the audience.

#### UNIT NINE: STYLE

Nor is knowledge of the principles of analysis, evidence, reasoning, refutation, and even persuasion enough. The informed and skilled product of a course in argumentation should know the resources inherent in good style and should be made aware of the fact that even the best of "logic" may go for naught if the means of conveying that logic should be deficient in the requisites of good style. Such principles as the following should be made an integral part of this course. A written or spoken argument should have an *interesting* style.

In addition, it is equally important that you make *clear* what you are attempting to prove. There should be an effort to keep the audience with you as you move from one point to another. Finish one point, and

then indicate that you are moving on to another. Do not jumble the points together. In this connection, use plenty of illustrations; nothing makes a point clearer than to illustrate what you mean. (Incidentally, to illustrate also eases the monotony which is likely to follow a long treatment of abstractions.) Another means of securing clearness is through the use of *restatement*. It is a well-known principle that, while restatement (and repetition, also) can be over-done and can create monotony and boredom, nevertheless it can drive a point home and leave the idea firmly fixed in the mind. Actually, we tend to err on the side of failing to use the resources of restatement more often than to misuse this important tool by over-doing it.

A good style will also have *variety* and that ingredient called "*directness*." Perhaps one of the best means of securing these qualities is through the use of the interrogative sentence. Through this use, the audience will be made more alert. Furthermore, by the use of questions, the speaker will carry his hearers along with him because they will feel that they have a part in the thinking process. In some instances you should answer your questions as you want them answered; in other instances, when the reply is apparent, you should leave the questions unanswered.

Use humor as occasion may arise. Do not bring it in merely for the sake of humor, but use it when it will serve to advance your argument and at the same time lighten the tension which may prevail as the result of a long stretch of argument. It may well be advised: Have some fun as you go along.

#### UNIT TEN: DELIVERY

Because we are thinking of this course in argumentation and debate as a *speech* activity, we should necessarily include a unit on delivery. While, in all probability, substantial training in this phase of advocacy will be provided in a course in fundamentals of speech or a course in public speaking, it should certainly not be neglected at this point. At least the following minimum essentials should be included.

Good delivery is vitally important because even the best of arguments will be quite ineffective if poorly delivered—if the visible and audible factors in communication block the path between the advocate and his listeners. At least the following fundamentals should be kept in mind: (1) there should be direct contact with the audience; (2) there should be clear-cut enunciation; (3) there should be proper emphasis on important words, not only to bring out the thought but also to help break up a possible monotony; and (4) there should be a genuine enthusiasm which begets interest.

## CHAPTER VI

# Suggested Units in Discussion and Debate for Secondary Schools

KARL F. ROBINSON  
JOHN W. KELTNER

IN studying discussion and argumentation, it is important that high-school students know fundamental information and principles, but it is equally important that they develop skill in the practices of discussion and argumentation and debate. Both objectives can readily be achieved by the use of a systematic plan for such instruction.

Such a plan is offered in the following units in discussion and debate to aid the organization of work in these areas. The secondary-school debate topic, *Conscription of Manpower*, can be conveniently used in both the discussions and debates indicated. The units can be covered in approximately fifty hours of instruction; if the unit on the debate tournament is shortened, this time can be reduced. General objectives for such units might be:

1. To learn the essential theory and principles of debate and discussion.
2. To develop skill in reasoned discourse in both discussion and debate.
3. To develop skill in reflective thinking.
4. To develop an understanding of, and a consideration for, the opinions of others.
5. To develop the ability to work co-operatively with other students in discussion groups and on debate teams.

### UNIT I. PREPARATION FOR ARGUMENTATION

#### *Specific Objectives*

1. To develop an understanding of the place of discussion and debate in a democracy.
2. To train students in the investigation and use of sources of information needed in discussion and debate.
3. To become proficient in the selection and wording of subjects for discussion and propositions for debate.

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4. To develop skill in the analysis of a problem and a proposition.
5. To improve the ability of the student to solve problems. (Helpful teacher references on Unit I include: James H. McBurney, J. M. O'Neill, and G. E. Mills, *Argumentation and Debate*, Macmillan, New York, 1951; James H. McBurney and Kenneth G. Hance, *Discussion in Human Affairs*, Harper, New York, 1950; Alan Nichols, *Discussion and Debate*, Harcourt, Brace, and Co., New York, 1941; Henry L. Ewbank and J. J. Auer, *Discussion and Debate*, Crofts, New York, 1941.)

### Class Sessions

#### 1. The Place of Discussion and Debate in a Democracy

##### Lecture

- a. The purpose of discussion and debate.
- b. The pattern of discussion as compared to that of debate.
- c. Contemporary uses of discussion and debate.

#### 2. First Steps in Discussion

##### Lecture

- a. Considerations on "the selection of problems for discussion and propositions for debate."
- b. Investigation of the problem and the proposition.
- c. "Preliminary investigation": using the library, collecting information, recording materials.

##### Activities

A conducted tour of the library under the leadership of a librarian.

#### 3. Analysis of the Basic Problem, "Using Discussion Methods."

##### Activities

- a. "Formulation and phrasing of the basic problem." (The subject, *Conscription of Manpower*, can be divided so that small group discussions under staff direction can be held.)
- b. "Analysis of the basic problem." (Attention to present conditions, observable effects, causes, etc. Since this part of the assignment will come at the latter part of the hour, research activities in the library should be prepared and assigned before the conclusion of the session.)

#### 4. Analysis of the Basic Problem (continued)

##### Activities

- a. "Setting the criteria for the solution" should be included.
- b. The instructor should make clear the relation of this portion of the process to the understanding of the issue of need in the affirmative debate case to be developed later.

#### 5. Methods of Analysis (continued)

##### Activities

- a. "Possible solutions and evaluations of these solutions." (Again the work can be carried on in small discussion groups. It may be necessary to divide this phase. The



first hour would then be spent in setting the groundwork for the discussion; i.e., getting the major solutions before the group and finding what knowledge is needed. The second part should be spent in research by small groups assigned to work co-operatively in investigating the specific solutions.)

6. Methods of Analysis (continued)

*Activities*

- a. "Possible solutions and their evaluation" (continued). (From the previous preparatory stages, this session should be devoted entirely to the discussion and evaluation of the solutions.)

7. Analysis of the Debate Proposition

*Lecture and Discussion*

- a. The distinction between the analysis of a problem for discussion and that of a proposition for debate should be restated and explained.
- b. Class discussion of "issues"—their nature, purpose, and methods for discovering them—should be carried on with the group as a whole.

(See James M. O'Neill and R. L. Cortright, *Debate and Oral Discussion*, Century, New York, 1931, Chap. V; Russell H. Wagner, *Handbook of Argumentation*, Ronald, New York, 1938, Chap. II; Ray K. Immel and Ruth Whipple, *Debating for High Schools*, Ginn, New York, 1929, Chap. III.)

8. Analysis of the Debate Proposition (continued)

*Activities*

- a. In small discussion groups attempt to find the basic issues in the proposition for debate.
- b. Each discussion group works as a study unit and prepares issues from the materials at hand.
- c. Each group then sends a representative to meet with representatives from the other groups in a general session, where the issues are considered in a "forum discussion."

9. Analysis of the Debate Proposition (continued)

*Activities*

- a. Panel discussion and forum on the issues of the debate proposition; session to include the entire group.

10. Analysis of the Debate Proposition (continued) (Special study of materials and information, and of their relation to the issues of the proposition)

- a. This period should be under the direction of a member of the staff.
- b. The basic purpose is to find material for case construction, which is related to the issues that have been discussed.



- c. It is wise to have careful supervision of this research period because of the essential nature of the program and the need for developing good habits of research.
- d. It is suggested that the supervisor check carefully on methods of research.

## UNIT II. CONSTRUCTION OF THE DEBATE CASE

### *Specific Objectives*

1. To teach the form, methods, and technique of outlining arguments.
2. To develop the ability to organize the debate case.
3. To learn the kinds, uses, and tests of evidence.
4. To secure an understanding of reasoning, and to acquire skill in its use in argumentation.
5. To learn methods of support and development of the affirmative and negative cases.

### *Class Sessions*

#### 1. Methods of Outlining

##### *Lecture*

- a. General methods of outlining.
- b. Applied methods of outlining as they relate to use in debate: case outlines and briefs.

##### *Activities*

- a. Have students outline argumentative material that is given to them in written form. (This will provide the instructor with a method for determining just how much work on this basic outlining needs to be done.)

#### 2. The Development of the Case from the Issues

##### *Lecture on the development of the case from the issues.*

- a. Methods of division and partition.
- b. Methods of case construction.
- c. Methods and philosophy of:

- (1) Burden of proof.
- (2) *Prima facie* case.
- (3) Presumption.

(See McBurney, O'Neill, and Mills, *op. cit.*, pp. 160-169.)

#### 3. Methods of Support

##### *Lecture*

- a. The relationships between evidence and reasoning, and their application to the case. (See O'Neill and Cortright, *op. cit.*, Chaps. VII and VIII; Immel and Whipple, *op. cit.*, Chaps. III and V; Wagner, *op. cit.*, Chap. III.)

##### *Activities*

- a. In small groups have each person present both evidence and reasoning in support of some argument from the case which

has been under consideration. This work should be informal in the group. Each person should present his argument and support; and then submit to questioning.

- b. Again in small groups working co-operatively, develop an affirmative case.
- c. In a general session (to follow the group meetings and study period) representatives of each group should present the outline of the case which their group developed. This session should be a panel-forum type of presentation.
- d. This period should be a supervised research period to develop materials relating to both cases.
- e. In small groups, run a series of direct-clash discussions on the major issues of the debate. Have one person present the affirmative and one person the negative case on an issue; then have the group discuss the merits and weaknesses of the case. Have the group as a whole discuss the affirmative case on an issue, and then discuss the negative case on that same issue. (For details see E. H. Paget, "Rules for the Direct-Clash Debate Plan," *Quarterly Journal of Speech*, XXIII, pp. 431-433.)

#### 4. Affirmative Case

##### Activities

- a. The entire session should be taken up with the general discussion and evaluation of the cases being reported by members of the panel; i.e., checking the reasoning and the evidence used to support the case.

#### 5. Negative Case

##### Activities

- a. Develop a negative case in small group study as in No. 3.
- b. Present the negative case as in No. 4.

### UNIT III. REFUTATION

#### *Specific Objectives*

1. To acquire an understanding of the nature, principles, and uses of refutation.
2. To understand fallacies, both regular and special types.
3. To develop practical skill in refutation.

#### *Class Sessions*

##### 1. Methods of Refutation

###### *Lecture*

- a. The principles and methods of refutation and rebuttal; their place in debate; their use and misuse.
- b. Fallacies: their detection and disposal.

*Activities*

- a. Demonstration of refutation and rebuttal before the entire group by members of the class.
- b. Evaluation of the demonstration and discussions of weaknesses and merits.
- c. In small groups, have individuals present arguments; then allow others to refute them. The following procedure may be used: each member of the group presents an argument, affirmative or negative; another then refutes that argument as well as possible; the group then evaluates the work, and proceeds to another argument.
- d. Prepared slips stating a single argument are distributed, each student receiving one; he prepares his refutation, then delivers it before the class; the group and the instructor criticize the work.

(Consult O'Neill and Cortright, *op. cit.*, Chap. XI; McBurney, O'Neill, and Mills, *op. cit.*, Chap. XVI.)

## 2. Fallacies

*Lecture*

- a. Expand the earlier presentation on fallacies.
- b. Show the relationship between the fallacies of reflective thinking and fallacies of demonstration.

## UNIT IV. ORAL LANGUAGE AND DELIVERY

*Specific Objectives*

1. To understand the principles of effective oral language.
2. To understand the principles of effective delivery of argument.
3. To develop proficiency in the use of oral language and in the delivery of argument.

*Class Sessions*

## 1. Methods of Style and Delivery

*Lecture*

- a. Use of language as it relates to argumentative discourse.
- b. Methods of delivery in argumentation.

*Activities*

- a. Demonstration by members of the group in a short class debate. (See O'Neill and Cortright, *op. cit.*, Chap. XIII.)

## UNIT V. A DEBATE TOURNAMENT

*Specific Objectives*

1. To provide experiences in competitive debating in which the study of theory and practice can be applied.
2. To develop standards for criticism and to evaluate performance in debate with respect to them.

3. To develop teamwork, a code of ethics, and sportsmanship among students participating in debate.

### *Class Sessions*

In the hours which remain, the group can very easily be organized into debate teams in order to provide experiences in competitive debate for each student. A suggested plan of organization follows:

1. The Proposition

The question used in the first four units (*Conscription of Manpower*) or any other question.

2. Teams

Two-speaker teams are recommended. Students should be permitted to express a first and second choice for partners and sides of the question. The schedule may be planned by the instructor and posted with dates, opponents, and all essential information.

3. Chairmen and Timekeepers

Students should be appointed for each of these duties.

4. Judges and Criticism

The instructor can serve as a critic judge, with each student in the audience also submitting his decision and reasons for it on a ballot prepared for the debates. Either a shift of opinion or an ordinary type of ballot may be used. The instructor should give a specific critique following each debate, stressing criteria for evaluation, standards, and accomplishments of individual debaters, rather than merely *announcing* a winner.

5. Length of Speeches

The length of speeches is determined by the length of the class hour. In a forty-five minute period, constructive speeches of six or seven minutes in length and rebuttals of two or three minutes in length could be used. Such a plan would allow time for discussion and criticism.

6. Miscellaneous Arrangements.

If time permits, students should debate both sides of the question. As the schedule proceeds, the two strongest teams, as indicated by performance in class debates, may be selected to debate in a school assembly for a "championship" contest. Such a possibility is a strong motivation for good preparation in the tournament. It is also good training for the debaters. It should, likewise, be educationally valuable for the student body, as well as be effective publicity for the speech class. (See Carroll P. Lahman, *Debate Coaching*, H. W. Wilson Co., New York, 1936, pp. 329-403; Karl F. Robinson, *Teaching Speech in the Secondary School*, Longmans, New York, 1950, pp. 315-351.)

## CHAPTER VII

# Integration of Speech Education with English and Social Studies

WALDO W. PHELPS

### I. INTRODUCTION

THE program of speech education in a "typical" secondary-school system is difficult to describe. Extent and pattern of curricular offerings vary widely, even in different junior and senior high schools in the same school system. Some schools require a semester course in speech for all students. Others have established speech as a requirement for a specific departmental major. Most schools, however, do not require speech, but offer instead elective courses, principally in public speaking and dramatics, for a limited number of interested students. And a few schools pursue the delusive hope that speech skill, like Topsy, will just grow, even though the skill is cultivated only by the assumption that any teacher who invites a student to vocalize an answer is functioning as a qualified teacher of speech. Happily, this point of view is seldom found, for most principals realize that a good program of speech education can be evolved only when such training is assigned to a certain definite area in the secondary-school curriculum.

While it may be possible to integrate speech education with almost any other discipline, the general practice has been to combine such training with English and/or social studies. The plan is a good one and should be encouraged.

#### *1. It provides a method for bringing speech training to all students*

Secondary-school principals are realizing more and more that a significant majority of their graduates will profit from the ability to express ideas aloud with maximum skill and confidence. Certainly college-preparatory students need to develop this ability for use in college and throughout life. Moreover, the apprentice carpenter or plumber should have training which will enable him to participate in

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union meetings when he feels that he has a contribution to make. The new employee in a business establishment should know how to deal successfully with customers, and feel that he is able to present ideas effectively to his employer. The young housewife, attending her first PTA meeting, should know how to meet people, to ask questions of a speaker, and to participate in the discussion period. These people, and others like them, stand to gain because of training in speech. Indeed, it is difficult to find many people in our society who would not profit constructively from an increased ability to communicate orally. Secondary-school administrators, therefore, have an obligation to provide a planned program of speech education for all students under their jurisdiction. A combining, then, of speech training with English and/or social studies, aids an administrator in meeting this obligation. He has a program broad enough to cut across his entire secondary-school enrollment.

*2. The plan provides a continuing program of speech education throughout the school career of the student*

Most secondary-school pupils are enrolled in English or social studies classes each semester; and much class time is appropriately devoted to improvement of skill in reading, writing, spelling, grammar, and composition. There perhaps may be even more justification for also including a continuous program of speech education. The customary practice of including speech instruction as a minor phase of the work of one semester—a six-weeks speech unit in tenth-grade English, for example—will be of little value to students, and may only delude the principal into believing that speech training for his students is being adequately provided. (But, few souls are saved in a six-weeks speech unit.) The ability to express oneself cannot be achieved in such a short space of time. Effective speaking is a complex skill, requiring the individual to be in complete control of himself—and this in relation to other people. A speaker must accomplish many more things simultaneously than are demanded in spelling, writing, or reading. If a program for integrating speech training into English and social studies courses is to realize its potentialities, it must, therefore, be based on continuous study and practice throughout the school life of the pupil. This can be accomplished within the present framework of secondary education.

*3. The plan can be evolved by every secondary school*

It makes no difference whether the individual school is large or small; located in a rural or a metropolitan area; or whether the school district is wealthy or poor. This program calls for no additional

classes, no additional teachers, and as a consequence, no additional finances. Certain modifications and adjustments—some on a short-term basis and others over a longer period of time—must of course be made, and these will be discussed in detail later in this chapter.

One word of caution may now be appropriate. The plan for integrating speech education into English and/or social studies should not be regarded as a complete speech education program for any secondary school. It should, rather, be thought of as providing limited background and practice for all students throughout their school careers, and as preparation for the many pupils who will elect specialized courses in public speaking, dramatics, debate, discussion, and radio broadcasting. In these separate speech courses students will have an opportunity to study various aspects of oral communication intensively under the direction of a well-trained speech teacher. The two approaches, one integration and the other separate classes, should be thought of as amplifying and supporting each other in any planning by a school administration.

## II. INTEGRATION OF SPEECH AND ENGLISH

Current attempts to teach speech in secondary-school English classes result in a variety of practices. For example, a teacher, assigned to 10-A English comprising spelling, composition, grammar, and literature, may be asked to include speech training. Thus a course of study providing one period a week or one period every other week for study and practice in speech is often accepted as a means of satisfying the speech needs. Obviously, this approach seldom produces any significant progress in speech skills. Furthermore, it does not really integrate speech training with the English course; rather, it sets aside a small amount of time for training in oral expression. This, as many English teachers point out, causes problems. "Speech day" is an isolated factor, both for the pupils and the teacher. It does not become a continuing thread, woven into the heart of the course. If no specific speech assignment is made, pupils don't know what to talk about. If students are asked, on the other hand, to prepare a few words on their favorite hobby or a recent movie, they see no particular reason for talking. Perhaps the lack of enthusiasm with which thirty-five or forty pupils walk to the front of the room, utter a few words and return to their seats, glad "to get it over with," is the best reason for believing that this approach usually leaves much to be desired in a speech course, both in terms of motivation and in terms of educational value.

A second general practice is to include a speech unit, usually six weeks in length, during one semester of English. Again, it is unreasonable to expect significant progress to be made in such a short period of time, and alert administrators do not believe that such a unit adequately meets the needs of pupils for speech training. Furthermore, the short, concentrated speech unit in the English course often causes severe difficulties. Students may not see the purpose of such work; they are not motivated; they don't know what to talk about in their speeches; they may become disciplinary problems. The main reason, again, is that this unit is apart and isolated from the remainder of the course, rather than an integral part of it.

A third method for teaching speech in the English course is to divide the time during one semester between the English teacher and the speech teacher. A typical program would provide for instruction by the English teacher in spelling, composition, grammar, and literature during three days of the week, and instruction in oral communication under the direction of the speech teacher on the remaining two days. This approach also generally proves to be unsuccessful. Either or both of the teachers are apt to lose control of the class, because the students misunderstand the purpose of the course, confuse assignments, lack motivation, and, as a consequence, learn less about either English or speech than might be expected. The basic reason, once again, is the lack of true integration of speech with English.

What, then, may be suggested as a feasible method for integrating speech training with English in order to make the study of both more profitable? As we have seen, combining speech with spelling, grammar, and written composition has only limited possibilities. Much class time for the study of these subjects is of necessity devoted to instruction by the teacher and silent work by students. Oral spelling of words, however, is a customary procedure, and provides limited opportunity for focusing on clear articulation of individual speech sounds and accurate pronunciation of words. The study of grammar may well include oral discussion of rules. Interest in written composition may on occasion be stimulated by oral reading and discussion of student papers, but this practice easily may be overworked. An understanding of outlining, often included as a part of written composition, is useful also as one of the steps in speech preparation.

By far the best segment of the English course with which to combine speech education is the study of literature, for inherent in this subject matter is the content so necessary and vital to meaningful oral expression. A wealth of thought-provoking material is at the disposal of the teacher. Here is a valuable opportunity for the skillful



teacher to challenge the students—challenge them to think, to express their thoughts orally, and, finally, to evaluate both the thinking and the oral contributions of classmates. The teacher may utilize, for example, the plot of the story in its various stages; the characters as they increasingly come into focus; the over-all setting as it influences or is made more clear by the story; and, finally, the author—his life, personality, and contribution to literature. Some of this amplifying and enriching material can be presented by students in individual reports before the actual selection is studied by the entire class. Contributions relating to the setting and to the life of the author provide meaningful content for student speeches and can serve to motivate class interest in a particular selection. Opportunities for creating situations wherein the entire class will be challenged to think, to express their thoughts orally, and to evaluate the thinking of classmates will be numerous during the reading itself. Here the skill and training of the teacher are at a premium. He can and quickly will prevent such challenges if he asks only factual questions calling for a rote answer or recitation in terms of what happened on a specific page to the leading character. While responses gained from questions of this type are useful for checking reading ability and comprehension, they do not in themselves stimulate thinking on the part of students. Questions that may be answered yes or no also fall into this category. What the teacher must do is to ask questions wherein the student is challenged to think, exercise his powers of judgment and discrimination, and advance reasons for his conclusions. Often, the evaluation of various characters in a narrative as the plot unfolds will serve this purpose, as will a similar treatment of the plot itself.

In English courses, students frequently study Poe, Hawthorne, Irving, Dickens, and other writers. It should not be difficult to see how the study, for example, of *A Tale of Two Cities* would provide a means of developing skill in critical thinking and speaking.

Some schools organize their literature offerings for a specific semester around a particular theme, as, for example, the literature of the "Dust Bowl" as it relates to the values of thrift and economy. Questions which help pupils to discuss basic causes, which encourage them to evaluate possible solutions, and which stimulate them to think about thrift and economy in terms of present-day problems will help to motivate thinking and oral expression.

One may be justified in stating that the secondary-school English teacher who looks for opportunities of this nature to integrate speech education with English not only will be aiding pupils in this respect, but will at the same time be developing greater pupil interest and will

be enriching the English course of study as well. Certainly the contrast between a teacher with this approach and the instructor who only assigns pages to be read, questions to be copied from the blackboard and answered, together with a weekly written test, will be the type of contrast that pupils, at least, will quickly and easily recognize and will note well.

### III. INTEGRATION OF SPEECH AND SOCIAL STUDIES

It is more difficult to describe a plan for integrating speech with social studies. It is, of course, true that students do participate orally in any social studies class; but the nature, extent, and educational value of this participation vary widely in accord with the approach of the individual teacher. Too much time often is devoted to a routine asking of factual questions relating to the unit of study—questions that many times can be answered simply by a *yes* or *no* response. Some teachers, however, do include oral reports and a limited amount of group discussion in conjunction with the unit of study. It is general practice to assign study and discussion of current events to the social studies curriculum; but this, also, may result almost exclusively in "silent level" activity, with teachers passing out weekly readers and requiring pupils to write answers to questions at the end of each article.

*In spite of the widely varying approaches to the integration of speech education with the social studies curriculum, it may be appropriate to emphasize the fact that a clear-cut relationship between study and practice in speech and social studies does exist, and to point out that this relationship is potentially more extensive and more feasible than the traditional English-speech combination.* Content in secondary-school social science courses deals primarily with current events, history, geography, political science, and economics; and thus it entails study of issues, events, trends, and people. Practically the entire social science course of study is focused on a type of content that provides the most meaningful kind of subject matter for stimulating oral expression. This is in contrast to the English curriculum, with the exception of literature, where much time of necessity is devoted to mastering skills such as spelling, written composition, and grammar. There is no reason for separating speech in the social science course from the remainder of the curriculum; oral expression can naturally be utilized continually as a prime means of amplifying, evaluating, and vitalizing the entire social science curriculum. The potentialities for speech education inherent in such an approach are very great, indeed.

Specifically, what speech techniques and methods are most appropriate for use in the social studies class, and how may they be included meaningfully in a social science unit of study? Certainly one of the most important methods is group discussion. Here the social studies teacher may afford students an opportunity to define issues, collect and record data, and present and appraise these data. The very fact that pupils are going to make verbal contributions open to evaluation by their classmates may be utilized by a skillful teacher as a means of stimulating the group to undertake more complete, thoughtful preparation, and in general to attain a higher standard of achievement. The same degree of challenge will not be forthcoming by following only a routine procedure of assigning pages in a textbook to be read, followed by questions to be answered and filed in a notebook.

What is desired, rather, is a combination of the two methods of study. Discussion has the advantage of being a speech experience in which the entire class may actively be engaged in consideration of problems in an effort to reach areas of agreement. Important lessons that can be gleaned from participation in discussion; they include learning the importance of knowing whereof one speaks, and of suspending judgment until all points of view have been presented. Here is an outstanding opportunity to provide training that will be invaluable to secondary-school students throughout adult life. It also may be capitalized on by social studies teachers as logical motivation for urging students to penetrate beyond the boundaries of their own textbooks. Extensive collateral reading will be far more meaningful in this framework than when it always is an "extra report" to be filed.

Student reports, in the form of expository—and occasionally persuasive—speaking also should be included, not only because this approach potentially can provide the student with worth-while practice in public speaking, but additionally—and this is fully as important—because such contributions may serve to enrich the social studies curriculum and encourage students to "dig a little deeper" than they might otherwise do. Debate is a third method that will be appropriate whenever an issue or problem has been resolved into clear-cut alternatives. Only the most mature students, however, should be encouraged to participate, with the remainder of the class entering into the questioning period and serving as critics.

These, then, are the most useful methodologies in speech education available to the secondary-school social studies teacher. Inspection of typical social studies units of study should serve to make increasingly clear the many opportunities for implementation of purposeful oral expression into the social studies curriculum. A study of con-

servation, for example, might include discussion—either by the entire class or by a panel of five or six students—on “How to Plan the Use of Income.” Such a discussion should attempt to explore the most important causes of the problem and possible solutions before arriving at a plan of action or recommending a final solution. A debate might be held on the relative merits of Installment Buying or paying cash. Care must be exercised to be sure that participating students have adequately prepared; that they have a considerable background of information at hand. Collateral reading not only will be necessary, but should be meaningful to pupils in this situation. Many student reports also may be included in the study of such a subject as conservation. Two or three pupils might interview businessmen and report how a business is operated successfully. Other students might report from biographies of successful, thrifty men.

Typical social studies units,—United States history, our industrial world, civics, international relations, air-age geography and social problems—to cite a few examples, all contain content for numerous student speaking experiences. In addition, history generally and the history of the United States in particular may be utilized for the consideration of another important phase of speech education—the outstanding speakers who played such an important part in shaping the trend of events and the decisions made. Just as it is true that it is impossible to study speakers and speeches without a thorough understanding of the issues involved, so is it also true that careful analysis of speakers and speeches will bring these issues more sharply into focus. Such study can be a most excellent means of helping students to gain insight into what constitutes effective speaking—an insight which not only may serve to help them in their own speech development, but which also may help them to form more valid judgments of the speaking of contemporary statesmen. There probably never was a time when this country was in more desperate need of an electorate trained not only to make its own thoughts heard but also to evaluate critically the words of its leaders. It is suggested that a study of the history of public address in conjunction with appropriate social studies units may enable secondary schools more adequately to provide education of this nature.

#### IV. EVALUATION AND SUGGESTIONS FOR IMPROVEMENT

Potentially, the integration of speech education into the English and/or social studies curriculum has much in its favor. The purpose of this chapter has been to demonstrate that the opportunity for such integration already exists. It can inherently be a program of training

for all students. The training can be continuous, carried on throughout the school career of the secondary-school student. Administrators will not have to schedule extra classes or provide extra teachers. Much can be done now by re-writing units and modifying present courses of study. (It is suggested that wherever possible, help in this connection should be secured from a speech specialist.)

In spite of these favorable points, there are certain serious weaknesses that must be overcome if the program is to function effectively. The great danger is that the skills of speech will not be taught, or that they will be taught incorrectly. Not only must students be given opportunities to speak, but they also must be given a basic background and constructive suggestions if they are to improve. The crux of the problem is readily apparent. Secondary-school English and social studies teachers generally have not been trained to teach speech. As a consequence, they do not provide students with an over-all philosophy of effective public speaking. Often they offer no criticism or constructive evaluation of student speeches; and, if they do venture to comment, their suggestions may be based only on the number of "ands" or "uh's"—or the number of times the student looks out the window. It also is true that a teacher who lacks speech training will increase stage-fright and insecurity in his students rather than help them control it. Many English and social studies teachers realize these facts and offer them as the main reason for not including more speech training in their classrooms.

While group discussion will not run afoul of these particular problems to the same degree, a lack of training on the part of teachers may, nevertheless, cause severe difficulties. Discussion may be regarded by the class as an opportunity to "just talk"—a convenient substitute for studying. Proper training on the part of the teacher, however, will help group discussion to enable a class to discover what it already knows and does not know, and to plan for subsequent study.

Thus the problem at the present time is that English and social studies teachers have not been trained to teach speech in their classrooms, and as a consequence little, if any, of the skills of speech are being taught.

There are two possible solutions for this problem. One is to provide training in the speech skills for all students in separate speech classes, under the direction of a trained speech specialist. While this might prove to be the most effective method in terms of securing real student progress, it no doubt would be impractical in many school situations. The second alternative is to train secondary-school English and social studies teachers to teach speech. A modest beginning may

perhaps be made in this direction by requesting college and university speech departments to offer appropriate in-service courses or workshops and by encouraging present English and social studies teachers to enroll. At best, however, this program would be of limited value and could be made to reach only a small number of teachers.

In final analysis, then, the only workable solution—and this obviously is a proposal that could be implemented only over a long period of time—seems to lie in requiring prospective English and/or social studies teachers to enroll for speech training while in college. It might be appropriate, therefore, to suggest the direction that such training should take. A course in public speaking and a course in group discussion not only would help teachers to solve some of their teaching problems as presented in this chapter, but, in addition, would be very beneficial in terms of their over-all careers as educators engaged in community service. A course in basic voice improvement would be beneficial for some. A course in interpretation would be very helpful to prospective English teachers, while a course in the history of American public address would be invaluable to social studies teachers. All would profit greatly from a course in the teaching of speech in the secondary schools.

This suggested program of speech education would total approximately twelve units for most students. Many colleges and universities are beginning to require some of these courses at the present time. If and when secondary-school administrators urge an extension of this trend, it may come about and eventually be accepted practice. The resultant educational benefits for secondary-school students may well be worth the effort.

## SECTION B—EXTRACURRICULAR ACTIVITIES

### CHAPTER VIII

# Extracurricular Discussion in the Secondary School

WILLIAM E. BUYS

#### PRINCIPLES AND OBJECTIVES

A FUNDAMENTAL characteristic of any group is the existence of problems which require solution. Discussion is a process whereby groups resolve their problems. Discussion is the co-operative application of the scientific method of critical thinking to social problems. In a democracy, group problem-solving is essential. The sociological<sup>1</sup> definition of a group may be applied with considerable validity to the family, the school, the local community, the state, the nation, and the world. The problems inherent in and peculiar to these groups require solution by democratic processes if democracy is to survive.

The school has the responsibility for educating all individuals in the skills and attitudes of democratic group problem solving. The school must permit those experiences or create those experiences which will teach such skills and attitudes.

Any discussion activity, curricular or extracurricular, is, therefore based on the principle that all should know and ably apply scientific procedures of critical thinking to the problems of their groups. It is not enough that schools provide solutions to problems by textbook and lecture, though that is important and economical; it is not enough that students begin, as in debate, with a conclusion to a problem and learn the techniques of defending a predetermined position, important as the defense of predetermined positions may be. Students need to learn how to locate and define the problems of their own "real-life" groups. Toward this end they need to know methods of gathering, analyzing, and organizing facts and opinions. They must learn to consider, objectively, possible solutions to problems. They must learn to evaluate

<sup>1</sup>Kimball Young, *Social Psychology*. New York: F. S. Crofts, 1947.

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the results of the solution as determined by democratic means. Activities constructed to achieve these ends are discussion activities.

The above principle is really a social objective. The survival and growth of democracy is dependent upon the individual. He must learn those skills and attitudes which permit him to be an effective participant in his groups.

It must be the first concern of the director of discussion activities to construct the program to change the behavior of the participant. It is only on the level of the individual that that learning will take place which will have an effect on the success or failure of democracy. While the previous statement appears obvious, the failure to comprehend fully its significance will spell failure for any discussion program. Discussion activities have as their objectives for individuals the following:

1. *The individual should learn the basic steps of critical thinking.* It is believed that a knowledge of the logic of problem-solving renders an individual more capable of solving his own and his group's problems.
2. *The individual should learn that sharing of information, opinions, and experiences is the democratic method of group survival and progress.*
3. *The individual should learn that good speech is essential to the communication of ideas and the solution of group problems.* Speech characteristics which are harmful to the efficiency of the individual should be eliminated. It is important that every person have self-confidence, a pleasing voice, suitable bodily action, adequate language, and appropriate attitudes.
4. *The individual should learn to be tolerant toward all members of his group.* The belief that differences necessarily make enemies should be eliminated or modified.
5. *The individual should learn that the world is not an "either...or" world but rather a world of many sides where truth is usually the result of intelligent compromises.*
6. *The individual should learn and improve his abilities as a leader and follower.* He should learn what characterizes leadership and when and where during the discussion process there is need for more or less.
7. *The individual should learn to listen carefully, critically, and purposefully.* Good listening is the basis for intelligent discussion.
8. *The individual should learn that criticism can and often should be separated from personal feelings of like or dislike.*
9. *The individual should learn the importance of daily concern with the current problems which affect his living.* An awareness of events, local and international, and a sense of their implications is much desired as an outcome of discussion.

The above individual objectives and the generalized principle that everyone needs to learn the process of democratic group problem-solving will be found at the bases of any good discussion program in the secondary school.



## HISTORY AND EVOLUTION

The history of discussion as a secondary-school speech activity is not clear if viewed from the point of where, when, and how discussion was first used in an extracurricular program. However, the history which exists ideologically can be readily traced from the philosopher Rousseau and, more recently and significantly, from John Dewey.<sup>2</sup> Dewey's teaching that scientific methods should be applied to social problems has been the basis for discussion methods in the modern classroom and some of the methods which have developed in the secondary-school's extracurricular speech program.

A second source for the development of discussion has been the criticism that, through debate, speech teachers have been training the superior students and neglecting the average students. In fact, in many communities discussion is being sponsored as the answer to such strictures as the Fisher Report.<sup>3</sup> Careful study will show a lack of understanding of the nature and the purposes of the discussion process, if it is used to replace other speech activities. Contemporary thought holds that discussion and debate should be considered as discussion-debate rather than as two separate or separable speech activities.<sup>4</sup>

A third source of growth has been the significant influence of colleges and universities. The publication of sound textbooks in the field of discussion-debate, the personal influences of college and university speech teachers, and the influences of the extension services have been important in the development of discussion activities at the secondary level. The origin of practically every discussion program can be attributed to these sources.

In some states, Ohio, Nebraska, and Colorado, to name a few, discussion programs are organized at a state level. In other states, Wisconsin, for example, discussion has developed as a regional interscholastic speech activity. A recent survey shows that fourteen states include discussion in their state interscholastic speech programs. These states are Alabama, Colorado, Connecticut, Idaho, Indiana, Kentucky, Minnesota, Nebraska, New Jersey, Ohio, Oklahoma, Oregon, Pennsylvania, and Wyoming.

Schools which have developed intra-mural or intra-community discussion activities are to be found in every state. Radio stations in many communities have offered their facilities for use by the schools

<sup>2</sup>John Dewey, *How We Think*. New York: D. C. Heath, 1910.

<sup>3</sup>A report of the contest committee of the North Central Association. See "Why Contests in Music, Speech, and Art should be Eliminated." L. B. Fisher, *The Nation's Schools*, October 1950, p. 36.

<sup>4</sup>D. K. Smith and Wm. Howell, "Minnesota Reply to the N.C.A. Committee Report," *Speech Activities*, Vol. VII, No. 1, Spring, 1951.

in presenting such programs as those sponsored by The Junior Town Meeting League.<sup>5</sup>

#### EXAMPLES OF GOOD PRACTICES

To understand the differences which appear in different programs, it is necessary to consider the different points of view concerning the meaning of discussion. It is also necessary to consider the position of debating in the democratic group problem-solving process.

The manner in which discussion activities are conducted reflects the fact that the word "discussion" does not mean the same thing to all people. To some, discussion is not synonymous with problem-solving, but "just another educational tool"—a method for sharing information. Thus, are to be found students participating in round tables, panels, or panel-forums in which the information that is shared is used only incidentally in solving a problem. To others, each face-to-face speech situation must concern itself with some aspect of a problem which the group defines as a problem if that activity is defined as discussion. Those who look on discussion as just another educational method construct their programs outside the context of problem-solving. Those, who view discussion as problem-solving, construct their programs so that participants must co-operatively arrive at workable solutions.

In a democracy, where authority is delegated and where political parties exist, there is need not only for discussion, but also for a method whereby solutions arrived at by smaller groups can be presented to the body politic for further discussion or for voting. The problems of groups larger than the family can seldom be solved by continuous discussion. Such problems are complex, and the time available to most groups is limited. When resolutions of fact, policy, or belief are proposed and when such resolutions are either affirmed or denied, discussion has stopped and debate has begun. The ideal democracy would be one in which solutions were arrived at by consensus. Practically, we must recognize the fact that decisions must often be made by majority vote.

So far we have referred to discussion as the process by which a group solves a "real" problem. It must be remembered that in our schools we are teaching students how to do things. In teaching we take short cuts. It is seldom that a "real discussion" ever takes place in a classroom or extracurricular speech program; students are usually given problems for discussion rather than being permitted to select

<sup>5</sup>*Make Your Discussion Conscious*: a handbook on discussion published by The Junior Town Meeting League, 400 South Front St., Columbus, Ohio

their own. We must regard, therefore, most discussion programs as being exercises for the teaching of discussion techniques. Differences in programs will be determined by what teachers consider a "good" exercise.

In considering examples of good discussion programs, we shall refer to two which consider discussion to be a method of group problem-solving. The first program is an interscholastic discussion-debate program which has developed within the framework of an already existing debate program. This program developed on a local basis as a result of, *first*, the criticism that debate is education for the superior minority and that there is a need to educate the average majority; *second*, the influences found in a large university; and, *third*, the beliefs that discussion is a necessary prerequisite to debating and that the process of democratic group problem-solving is not just discussion or debate but rather discussion-debate.

In 1946, the Southern Ten High-School Conference, a group of schools in the Madison, Wisconsin, area, held its first meeting. Up to this time, the activities of the conference were athletic, with an occasional practice debate. Since 1946, the following discussion-debate program has evolved.

The Southern Ten discussion-debate program has two clearly defined objectives: the *first* is to teach discussion methods and as its corollary to increase interscholastic discussion activities; the *second* is to improve the quality of debating—by placing it in its logical relationship with discussion. This discussion-debate program has four clearly defined activities. The activities are organized and programmed to achieve the objectives. Each activity, therefore, has a different emphasis.

The first activity is a discussion meet held in October, in which member schools participate by sending any number of participants. Non-member schools are invited to attend as auditors. This activity has two specific purposes: the *first* is to introduce students to the discussion-debate concept, emphasizing the skills and attitudes necessary to good discussion; the *second* is to locate, define, and analyze the basic issues in the major problem which will be considered during the remainder of the discussion-debate season.

In the morning session, the first part of the program consists of a lecture by an authority on the purposes, values, skills, and attitudes of the discussion-debate process. This lecture is followed by a film, *Public Opinion*,<sup>\*</sup> which presents discussion-debate as the democratic

<sup>\*</sup>Film: *Public Opinion*; sound, 10 minutes; Encyclopaedia Britannica Films.

method of group problem-solving. Following the lecture-movie, a question period is conducted to clarify any student problems.

After the lecture-movie-forum, an authority from the University of Wisconsin presents an hour lecture on various aspects of the first question to be discussed. During the entire season, the problems for discussion are formulated from the national debate resolution. (It is interesting to note that last year, following the first discussion meeting on the problem area of "The Welfare State," the members of the discussion body decided to change the problem area to "Socialized Medicine." The remainder of the conference activities were on this problem.) A thirty-minute forum follows the lecture. At the close of the lecture-forum the discussants go from the lecture hall to round-table types of discussion.

In these sessions, composed of ten or fewer persons, the discussions are moderated by student leaders who have been elected by their schoolmates. The leaders and participants have been sent, prior to the meet, a set of materials and instructions which have been worked out to be in harmony with the issues presented by the lecturer. The discussion-debate teachers act as resource persons. The session lasts an hour and concerns itself with the issues considered by the lecturer. The afternoon session is organized in the same manner; the second problem for discussion is in logical relationship to the first, and a different lecturer conducts the lecture-forum.

This first program, in which experts make analyses of issues in what is often a very foreign and difficult problem, serves to stimulate interest. Following this meet, students feel that they now have a better understanding of the importance of the problem area and a better knowledge of the discussion-debate process. The second conference activity is a series of exchanges of discussants between schools. Each school arranges its own schedule; schools usually travel twice and act as host twice. In these exchanges, as in all the conference activities, students travel on school time and discuss and debate before audiences.

This exchange activity has three specific purposes: the *first* is to train students in methods of public discussion—that is, discussion before audiences which may or may not participate; the *second* is to train students in the skills of discussion leadership (in all these exchanges student moderators are used); the *third* is to stimulate interest in the discussion-debate program in order to build participation.

The third activity of the conference is another discussion meet. This meet which precedes the opening of the debate season, has three specific purposes: the *first* is to provide a significant closing event

for those schools participating in discussion but not in debate; the *second* is to evaluate and select those individuals who have done outstanding work in discussion; and the *third* is better to prepare students who will debate and who need to decide which side of the question to choose. This third activity is organized as follows:

1. Each member school may bring any number of students.
2. There are three discussion sessions; each discussion group consists of five students from different schools and a moderator-evaluator from the staff of the University of Wisconsin's Department of Speech. The group's personnel changes each round.
3. Each round is related to the preceding one in a problem-solving sequence. At the end of each round, each person has a set of conclusions to be used as the basis for succeeding sessions. At the beginning of rounds two and three, the moderator with the aid of the students synthesizes the finding brought by each member. On the basis of this synthesis, the group attacks the new problem.
4. Following each round, the moderator rates the performances of the members of the group. The rating chart is adapted from Ewbank and Auer.<sup>7</sup>
5. Awards are presented to the students which receive the five highest ratings.
6. Five students, each from a different school, are selected to participate in a radio round table aired over a Madison station.

Following the final discussion activity, students are polled by their teachers and on the basis of this are assigned work on debate cases.

The fourth activity is a series of home-and-home debates between schools. All debates are held before audiences. On the basis of wins and losses, a conference debate champion is declared.

There are two major weaknesses in this discussion-debate program. The *first* is that a debate topic is chosen prior to the beginning of the discussion activities. The *second* is that the debate topics chosen are not 'real' enough for good discussion and debate. However, because of the close co-operation between teachers, there is a remarkable lack of debating attitude during discussion activities. As the result of the friendly discussion experiences, contest debating, although taken seriously, is a great deal of fun.

The second discussion program to be considered in detail as being representative of good practice is the Ohio Public Affairs Conference. This program has received nation-wide recognition as an example of good high-school discussion. This activity, rather than being a series of discussion activities followed by debating, has developed in-

<sup>7</sup>H. L. Ewbank and J. J. Auer, *Discussion and Debate*, New York: F. S. Crofts, 1941.

dependently of the debate program. Inaugurated in 1947 under the leadership of Professors Carmack and Utterback of Ohio State University, this program has expanded from a one- to a two-day conference. Similar activities have been held in other parts of the state as a result of the success of the conferences held in Columbus.

The conference directors, composed of high-school students and members of the staff of the Ohio High School Speech League, select a discussion problem area. For example, the topic for 1950 was, "How can the United States best prepare to defend itself in the present world crisis?" Prior to the conference, materials are prepared which include study lists, directions for good discussion, instructions regarding conference procedures, and a list of issues to be considered during the conference deliberations. These materials are sent to participating schools. The students are given an opinion check before or when they arrive. On the basis of this poll, they are assigned to discussion groups in order that each group may have a well-balanced climate of opinion. The first portion of the first day is used for pre-discussion education. During this time, the procedures, methods, values, and skills necessary to good discussion are presented either by lecture or by demonstration group.

Five discussion sessions are held during the two-day conference, each student remaining in the same group for all the sessions. During each session, from one to three issues are discussed. One student is chosen by each group to act as its spokesman and one to act as its secretary. The sessions last one hour. During that time, the groups may call upon members of a panel of experts from Ohio State University for information and advice. The sessions are moderated by college students from the discussion courses at the university.

Following each student session, a general assembly is held. Here, student spokesmen report the findings and conclusions for their groups and also serve as a panel which synthesizes the reports from the various sections. During the synthesis period, student participation may occur on the floor of the assembly—a kind of participation which has been described by Larson<sup>8</sup> as being in the nature of parliamentary debate. Each session of discussion is logically related to the previous one so that, at the final general assembly, statements of policy are formulated in terms of what has been accomplished through the two-day conference. The sessions are summarized and critiques of the conference given by the panel of experts and the directors of the conference.

<sup>8</sup>P. Merville Larson, "Whither Discussion? or Will Discussion With?", *Speech Activities*, Vol. VII, No. 1, Spring 1951, p. 28.

Although debate of a parliamentary nature occurs, the conference is constructed to educate young adults in the attitudes and skills of group problem-solving by application of the principles of critical thinking. Not only is the conference an experience in group problem-solving, but it is also a very real experience in group living. The social experiences of thinking and playing together are invaluable in the maturing of young adults if they are to take their places as active members of a democracy.

#### EVALUATING DISCUSSION ACTIVITIES

In evaluating a high-school discussion program, one is faced with problems of considerable magnitude. Because of this, it must be reported that little has been done of a scientific nature in evaluating discussion in high school, most evaluations being reports of individual observations and feelings. Such descriptions, however, should not be neglected simply because they are subjective, for in the last analysis all evaluations are based upon elements of subjectivity.

The scarcity of evaluations results because, *first*, extracurricular programs have more factors to be controlled than do classroom programs; *second*, such evaluations fall upon already overworked personnel; *third*, many teachers of discussion are not trained to construct valid and reliable instruments of testing and measuring; and, *four*, most secondary-school programs are not flexible enough to permit experimentation.

The basic question in the evaluation of the discussion process is, "Does discussion contribute to the good of the individual and to society?" Teachers of discussion claim that training in discussion helps students to develop attitudes and improve their ability to make decisions. Timmons<sup>9</sup> constructed a study to test "...the assumption that discussion, in addition to information, is essential for the wise decision and the appropriate attitude towards a controversial issue." The social issue was, "What, if anything, should be done about Ohio's system of releasing convicts from prison?" The subjects were 672 juniors and seniors from Ohio high schools.

The experiment was designed to measure the comparative values of reading factual materials only and reading factual materials plus discussion as both were related to the ability to make wise decisions and as they affected attitudes. The results concerning the effects of discussion on decision making were:

<sup>9</sup>William M. Timmons, "Decisions and Attitudes as Outcomes of the Discussion of a Social Problem," reported in Ewbank and Auer, *Discussion and Debate*, New York: F. S. Crofts, 1941, p. 377.



1. Both groups made real gains. The groups which had discussed gained significantly more than those which spent time only in reading.
2. Students with high scores on wise decision making before discussion were seldom pulled down by discussions with students who had low scores. Those who had low scores on wise decision making raised their scores following discussion with individuals of like scores; however, they gained more when they discussed with students who had higher scores.

The results of the second part of the study were not decisive. There seemed to be no significant differences in the attitudes of those who read and those who read and discussed.

This study seems to offer support for the discussion teacher who "feels" that discussion is doing something worth while. More studies of this type, however, are needed. Most evaluation procedures are less valid than those used by Timmons. Nevertheless, in working with discussion programs, it might be useful to employ some of the following methods.

One common-sense method for describing the success of the program is the amount of participation. Keeping records of attendance at activities—the number of schools participating, the number of students from various schools, and the age and grade level of the participants—is useful. A similar criterion is the number and type of activities. In our culture, size, if it is properly evaluated, may be one measure of worth.

Observations and number counts such as the following are indicative and useful. The Southern Ten began in 1946 with one discussion meet. In 1950-51 there were two conference meets, sixteen exchanges between schools, two meetings of discussion-debate teachers, two conference debate tournaments, and many exchange debates. In addition, there was a conference discussion sponsored by conference student councils and technically directed by discussion-debate teachers. At this discussion of problems of interscholastic sportsmanship, all the leaders of the discussion groups were students who had been active in the discussion activities of the conference.

The results of discussion as they affect the individual are usually evaluated in two ways. The first is an opinion or shift-of-opinion poll. The discussants check their attitudes or opinions on a standardized scale. The check is taken prior to the discussion, immediately following the discussion, and sometimes after a period of several days. This process gives the directors of the discussion some indication of the amount and direction of change in the attitudes of their students. As used in the Ohio Public Affairs Conference, it is useful in organizing discussion sessions.



The second method of evaluating the effects on the individual is the administration of paper-and-pencil tests to determine the amount of information learned or to determine the knowledge of the discussion process. Such tests are seldom used because they require a tremendous amount of work in establishing their validity and reliability.

Another area of evaluation is that of the ability of the participant during the discussion. There are two problems here. The *first* is should a student be evaluated during the discussion process? The *second* is how and by whom should he be evaluated? Many persons feel that evaluating a student during a discussion is harmful and invalid because it causes the participant to act in ways he would otherwise not use. This objection has been most often raised in collegiate discussion competition and seems to be based on logic. At the level of the high school, however, where most students are in the early stages of learning discussion techniques and where the discussion is really a practice situation at best, it is generally felt that an analysis of the participant's abilities is a worthwhile procedure.

The weaknesses of evaluating the individual's abilities are numerous. In the first place, there is the problem of deciding what constitutes "good" discussion technique. Such decisions are most subjective. Realizing this, those in charge must make clear to the rater and the rated that such ratings are subjective. This also means that those who are asked to rate should have adequate background in the philosophy and methods of discussion. In some programs, participants rate each other; if the student is experienced, this seems wise. In other programs, teachers rate students or call in experts for the job.

Rating blanks and scales are usually employed for purposes of criticism rather than as the basis for giving awards. When used for the latter, it is wise to call a meeting of the evaluators and discuss the meanings of the number system of the scale or the verbal descriptions of the rating sheet. If everyone is aware that such instruments say as much about the rater as the rated, little harm will result.

#### MISCONCEPTIONS REGARDING DISCUSSION

Misconceptions regarding discussion are as numerous as people. The most prevalent one has been mentioned; namely, that because discussion includes more people and is non-competitive, it should replace debate. This idea exists because of the "either...or" logic system of many persons and because those abuses of competitive debating which do exist are thought to be inherent in the debate process. Debate programs have aped the programs of athletics; note there are debate teams, debate coaches, managers, varsity squads, letter winners,

*etc.* Some debate programs have placed winning before honor; to deny this would be folly.

It is clear, however, the weaknesses of debate are not peculiar to debate. Some debate programs do not place honor second to victory; the weaknesses in debating are not inherent in debate, they are weaknesses of administrative and teaching techniques and philosophy. Separating discussion from debate results from misunderstanding the nature of problems and the nature and processes of democracy. Debate is a function performed by leaders in a democratic society. If lawyers, salesmen, politicians, statesmen, *etc.*, are to have positions of persuasive power, they must be educated in techniques of persuasion which are characteristic of the democratic *ethos*. Schools can provide that education.

That differences of opinion should not be expressed during a discussion is another common misunderstanding. A good discussion may result in a temporary stalemate. The final criterion is, "What are the results of the differences?" If the problem is solved, the discussion has not been futile. In real-life discussions, there are always differences; why should one expect harmony among high-school or college students?

There is the ever-present idea that to have good discussion, all must verbally participate. Some sit and say nothing. It is unwise to assume that they are doing nothing. Silence may result from ignorance; if so, silence is commendable. Silence may result from the decision not to speak; if so, it may be wisdom. If silence results from a fear, then, it is to be considered a real problem.

#### NEW DIRECTIONS

Discussion activities in high school are comparatively new. The first interscholastic program in Wisconsin was held by River Falls State Teachers College in 1940. The Junior Town Meeting League held its first meeting in 1944. Colorado began high-school discussion in 1946. No doubt other earlier examples can be cited; however, the point to be made is that, because of their newness, discussion activities are difficult to forecast. It can be hoped, however, that discussion activities will develop more as intramural activities, with problems which arise out of school life. In such intramural programs it is hoped that discussion groups will follow through and really solve the problems which they have selected as real problems. Discussion is not just talking; discussion is group problem-solving. A group of students in the writer's school became upset over chicanery in class elections, and they brought their problem to their class in advanced

speech. After spending five months of discussion, they had solved the problem. They changed the school's method of nominating and electing governing officers.

Another direction of discussion noted in some communities is the growth of extracurricular discussion as an intra-community activity. The consideration of local problems, the carrying of the problems to the community, the inviting of the community to the school as a community center is an untapped source of democracy in action.

Another proposal may, if adopted, do much to direct the future growth of discussion. Formulated by Bruno Jacob, secretary of the National Forensic League, this plan is designed to place discussion in its logical relation to debate by proposing that in the spring of each year, only a problem for discussion be selected on a nation-wide basis, and that the debate proposition not be worded until December. In this way participants would be encouraged to approach the subject as a *problem*—to develop a spirit of inquiry—and, furthermore, the materials prepared for their use would pertain to a problem and not to a proposition. Ultimately, and largely as the result of inquiry, the debate proposition would evolve—just as it ordinarily does in personal reflection or in group investigation.

For democracy to exist at all levels of society, discussion must exist at all levels. Local, national, and international problems require solution. It is to be hoped that those extracurricular discussion programs now in existence will expand. It is to be hoped that new programs will develop—in the curriculum and outside the curriculum. As discussion grows, so grows democracy.

## CHAPTER IX

# Extracurricular Debating in the Secondary School

R. P. HIBBS

### DEBATE IS VITAL AND BENEFICIAL

FOR most folk there are few thrills comparable to an excitingly waged contest; and those contests which afford the keenest enjoyment, either at the moment or in retrospect, are likely to be the ones in which the competitor triumphed, even though briefly, because of superior knowledge or resourcefulness. If these hypotheses are true, debating should be, as it is, a fascinating pursuit.

I one time saw an audience rise spontaneously and cheer lustily during the midst of a high-school debater's speech, cheer as does the crowd when a touchdown is scored—it was not a group who previously knew the speaker either. But this is admittedly an exceptional circumstance. Debating is not generally a spectacle to which hordes of persons clamor for admission. Because its chief worth comes for what it does for the participants, it need make no apologies because its crowd appeal is low. That it could be made more popular with, and beneficial to, audiences must be admitted; but that will call for the combined imaginations and determinations of our directors.

Although it is difficult for a debater to arouse a vicarious joy of combat in his auditors, yet the experienced and well-trained debater often realizes a zesty competitive thrill which is scarcely exceeded even in the realm of athletics. For the debater himself there are constant challenges and complete enjoyment in debating well. Each debate becomes a new experience for him, even when he uses the same proposition, just as a second round of golf is an entirely new game, though played on the same course as the first.

In this, however, we are assuming that the speaker's training has been of the best, his tutelage being from one whose forensic philosophy is sound and whose perspective includes a periphery much larger than the temporary competition in which the debater is immediately engaged.

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If the debater's objective is only to win the debate, if his preparation has been cursory, isolating bits of information to the dereliction of the fundamental issues involved and the values to be received, then his debating becomes an academic exercise, a sophomoric stage act. Idle sophistry is not a noteworthy outcome of a good secondary-school forensic program.

Debating has often been frowned on in certain quarters because of some alleged unpleasanties which have been known to follow in its wake. Debating, it is sometimes asserted, leads to intellectual dishonesty; it is often vindictive and bitterly waged with unwholesome personal references; it makes students dogmatic and biased; it breeds an intellectual autocracy and an imbalance of ideas on large public questions. Where these indictments may occasionally be true, teachers must assume the blame. I suppose that all these charges may be leveled at any subject taught by an unskillful, uninformed, or unprincipled teacher.

In this discussion, though, we must emphasize what a sound and skillful teacher *wants* to teach and what he *should* teach when he teaches debating. We hope to show what kind of persons become debaters, and, more importantly, what kind of persons debaters become. We should like to refer briefly to what we believe to be results, good and bad, of extracurricular debating programs. We should like to refer casually, rather than categorically, to some of the ideals and goals of the debating art as practiced in high schools. We hope to indicate in a general way what is good debating, what a good extracurricular debating program is, and what a good director is. We shall refer to current practices and, in the light of schools' experiences, make a few recommendations for the extension and improvement of extracurricular debating in high schools.

#### DEBATE IS FOR EFFECTIVE STUDENTS

Who should become debaters? Who actually do become debaters? Because the activity is so often not given a proper emphasis in some schools, it is sometimes relegated to social misfits who have sought in it a substitute glory which they perhaps sought in other, more glorious activities, but failed to achieve. Thus, a definite stereotype of a debater may be instantly called to the imagination of many persons: a myopic individual, often socially unpopular, a "grind," dowdy perhaps, lost in his syllogisms, almanacs, and rebuttal cards, spouting dry facts in a jargon which presumes an audience already informed on the question, and, consequently, performing at a function to be shunned at all hazards.

Where this is true, it is unfortunate; and we leaders in the activity must properly be ashamed. First of all, a good debate director must get the best youngsters in school for his activity, those with the best minds, most effective personalities, of strong social influence and good appearance; he gets energetic, hard workers, those willing to subvert the pleasures of the moment to bigger, long-term purposes. For it is these youngsters who must eventually become our social, economic, political, educational, and religious leaders; and we must realize their destiny and prepare them for it. Debating can help do just that.

Now, if it appears too platonic to assume that we must actually prepare a gifted group for eventual leadership, perhaps it may at least be conceded that the more complex society becomes, the more imperative good leadership becomes; whereas our great American emphasis today on the common man and our efforts to insure democratic equality for all may debilitate the emphasis on providing leaders.

Here, too, then, it may be argued, "Why take your best students, those who need training in debating least, to the neglect of the students less fortunate in intellectual, personal, or social endowments? Do not the latter need it more?"

I have partially answered that by mentioning our responsibilities to the superior student. We are talking here mainly about extracurricular debating, requiring much time and effort outside of the regular curricular day. Among the growing concerns of educators today has been the acceptance of the belief that the public schools, geared as they are to the average student, do not do enough for the gifted one. For years we have been lending the bulk of our attention to the underprivileged and less fortunately endowed, whose need is so apparent, assuming partly correctly, that the able can shift for themselves. Now we are increasingly emphasizing that the gifted can be of equal concern, that they, too, need great attention, and that we must give them extra opportunities commensurate with their abilities. Great strides already have been taken to help students proceed at whatever pace they are able. The extracurricular program is one of the most valuable outlets for superior abilities because it takes up some of the slack between the potentiality of a superior student and the level of work required of him in his classes, a level set largely for the average student's capabilities and too low for the superior student.

It would appear, then, that the interscholastic debating team should be composed of the ablest and most effective students in the school. The concentration of work will fall most heavily on them, as it should. To a lesser degree will the activity be followed by others. Second and third teams should exist for students who are less able but

who can decidedly profit by the work. Finally, a well-organized intramural program should be an outlet, *first*, for those who are future varsity prospects, *second*, for those who can profit by debate but who may never make the interscholastic team, and *third*, for those who just plainly like the activity. In schools which follow this arrangement, ten per cent or more of the student body may profit by extracurricular debate. Certainly there should be a strong liaison between the extracurricular debating program and whatever curricular attention the school gives to debate.

#### DEBATE IS AN OUTLET FOR POTENTIAL LEADERS

Does high-school debate training actually help to train for leadership? If so, how? Without attempting to review the statistical proof that is available, it seems safe to conclude that leaders in our society are nearly always our speakers, that well-taught debate is superior training in speaking, that it develops the personality, teaches research, logic, how to develop chains of reasoning, that it teaches persuasion and the techniques of influencing public opinion, that it shows the methods of proof and how to detect fallacy, that it trains one to marshal his best evidence clearly, in orderly fashion, interestingly, persuasively, and in a minimum of time. Debate, well taught, should teach a hearty respect for a search for truth, should nurture sportsmanship and fair play. It should teach the seriousness of facts and their conclusions; it should teach the power of words and develop an appetite for continued improvement in their use; it should aim to collect the genuinely important proofs for and against propositions so that intelligent decisions may be made. It should not necessarily attempt to establish the ultimate right or wrong of a proposition—especially through judges' decisions—but should set up the strong proof on either side of the question so that ultimately, from these cases, democratic decisions could be sensibly made. It should teach an understanding of and an appreciation for the persons who make up the audiences toward whom the arguments are directed. It should add to the debaters' sum total of experience, knowledge, and personality. It should make him a better person. Almost without exception, our great orators have been great persons, and in high-school debating the corollary should likewise prevail.

Now, nearly all these byproducts and tools of debating are prerequisites for leaders. Of course, it is not contended that debate participants will always receive maximal benefits in the areas mentioned; however, good instruction should move in those directions and thus provide good training for leadership in a democracy.



The frequency with which leadership in the public schools, then the colleges, then the nation, has fallen upon those with debate training is so convincing as definitely not to be casual. It may be argued that these persons are already superior before becoming debaters, and admittedly that is true. The point to be made is that debate training provides opportunities and special education for this group of gifted persons so that their particular talents are developed wholesomely and to the advantage of their society.

#### GOOD DEBATING IS GOOD EDUCATION

What is good debating? We have spent considerable time mentioning ideals toward which a good teacher and a good program should move. We have mentioned the importance of developing the person himself, making of him a better individual. We have indicated cursorily the learning areas in which he operates, the goals he should seek.

We have said that good debating is good speaking. It requires that the student be trained in the platform art, with all its emphases on bodily action, voice, language, composition, personality, *etc.* Often we hear phrases like "public speaking and debating," as if the two were separable, when actually the latter embraces the former and should represent one of the ultimate achievements of public speaking at its best. Debating is not a mere sophistical clash of briefs, often speciously designed to win a point; it should attempt to show the strongest cases for and against a two-sided proposition. Anything less is unreal and unfair to audience and participants.

The debater's speaking and personality should, then, be developed by every worthy educational experience. Speech is the vehicle for carrying his logic. He should avail himself of every opportunity to impersonate, act, read, interpret, give speeches, stunts, lead discussions, *etc.*, which will aid his platform power, his feeling for audiences, and his ability to influence them through his personality and art.

He should learn to develop a debate "case." This case should not be decided upon early in the year, when the saturation point of his reading and thinking is low, and then stuck to through the rest of the year. Rather, the case should be developed slowly, constantly, never actually complete even at the end of the year; for our thinking on questions as extensive as debate propositions is a slow process in our society also, often involving generations. The debater should try ultimately to organize into a complete chain of thought the honest conclusions of the best thinkers on his side of the question that is being debated.

A "good" debate case, then, is not a "trick" case, designed to disconcert the opposition and divert the discussion from the true issues. It does not cavil over pointless interpretations. It does not obscure the significant areas of disagreement by centering the argument on unimportant or unusual positions, selected because they may be upsetting to the opponents and thus "win" the debate. It debates the *intent* of the proposition for all it is worth.

And, thus, good debating is honest. In addition to presenting a true picture for or against a proposition, it uses proof honestly, not taking quotations or facts from their context and making them prove what is not their intent. It recognizes the strength and worth of opposing arguments, admitting some, showing how others are weakened in the light of additional facts.

Good debating answers a *whole case* with a *whole case*. It does not peck at isolated bits of information or, in Schopenhauer fashion, hold to unimportant, tenable ground, in order to avoid the power of potent but real arguments. It listens honestly, quotes fairly, discusses arguments and not persons. Good debating develops the appreciation and use of critical thinking; it shows how inferences are made and exposes common errors in everyday thought processes, such as confusing analogy with proof, errors in generalization, trusting hearsay.

It avoids the pattern of missing premises. A common weakness in much amateur debating is to present an array of facts which are doubtless true and then jump to the solution suggested in the debate proposition, without proving the intermediate premise that the proposed solution necessarily follows. For instance, a series of inadequacies in the distribution of medical care may be pointed out well and then the glib recommendation made that the government, therefore, should provide medical care, no effort being made to show why that follows. Oddly enough, few debaters seem to notice the omission although it may be the most important factor in the discussion of the proposition. I believe this to be among the commonest errors that I encounter in the logic of high-school debaters.

A good debater learns both sides of his proposition. He learns, as any person must, that all momentous questions have two strong sides; and he can recognize and even argue the strength of either side, not only without compromising his own beliefs, but to the improvement of his own thinking. Thus, rather than encouraging intellectual dishonesty, debating can and should be among the strongest influences toward intellectual honesty and willingness to face the facts.

## GOOD DEBATE PROGRAMS ARE PART OF SCHOOL LIFE

Building a good extracurricular debate program within a high school requires unstinting effort and enthusiasm on the part of the director. It demands huge blocks of his time, most of which will be spent outside the regular school day. It requires year-round planning and activity, not only in an intensive study of the propositions being debated but also in providing the large number of related activities, many of them social, which are necessary to building an outstanding program in the high school.

And what is an outstanding program? It aims at the goals to which we have frequently alluded in this article, the goals of personal development, respect for truth, improved thinking, etc. The good program is not to be judged too critically by the number of interscholastic debates won, although enough victories are likely to come if real efforts are made to do superior work along the lines we have mentioned. I do not believe in stressing victory as an important goal *per se*; good teachers will stress the objectives and ideals of the work, and enough victory will follow in the wake of work well done.

The debating program should be an integral part of the school's speech program and not exist as an independent entity. Because it is a public speaking activity and should embody the excellences which all speech training aims to impart, it should be so aligned with the speech department that the benefits of each will redound to the credit of the other. Many of the activities mentioned in this article are co-ordinate with other aspects of the speech program and will be obtained through drama work, etc. The broadening aspects of these activities are of priceless value in improving the debater's personality, delivery, and feeling for audiences. In turn, the debate work should better fit him for participation in other facets of the speech program and the life of his school.

The good debate program uses as many students as possible, trying to develop each in proportion to his potentiality, asking most from those who are most capable. Broad participation on the part of the entire student body should be urged.

The good program has long-range plans; it is constantly developing debaters of all levels of experience, providing them with activities in terms of their development, increasing their interest, and striving to make the most of each person. Veteran debaters will lead the program, constantly hunting for prospective students who will help the program and who will be helped by it, working with these youngsters on the fundamentals, coaching them in intramural contests, and providing the nuclear leadership to give the activity its needed drive.

The program will seldom be any better than its veterans, for they serve as the models, the leaders, the teachers, the carriers of tradition.

The good debate program produces versatile students. It experiments with various types of debates; it uses many varied types of subjects, oftentimes of a local or light and entertaining nature. It tries to make debate valuable and interesting to audiences; it builds up a following of people who like debate but do not actually participate.

The good program is so organized that there are always new goals to achieve, new experiences to anticipate at every stage of the student's school life. If he achieves too much too soon, he may become sated and bored, and the work becomes humdrum. Good pedagogy would insist that each student encounter each new experience only when he is ready for it; here the director accepts a difficult challenge. He provides new and varied experiences at the right time, leading from intramural experience, through hosts of local activities, to eventual interscholastic representation in important contests. He provides experiences before classrooms, in discussion groups, before clubs, in entertainments and stunts, in humorous debates, in radio, oratory, reading, or "emceeing." He provides a carefully worked out system of awards, with new ones obtainable in terms of cumulative experience or achievement. The worth of school numerals, letters, and insignia which show increasing degrees of achievement are of incalculable value in encouraging the work. Distinctive school letters and numerals, individualized sweaters, decals, or other insignia add to the distinction of belonging to the group. These things will more than reward the time spent by the director on them, for they popularize his activity to such an extent that he soon can secure the most capable students in school for it; and that is as it should be, for debating is an activity designed for superior students.

The good debate program is active all the time, active in many ways. It allies itself with and assists every department in school wherever and whenever it can, providing speakers for them, managing drives, announcing programs, etc. It thus becomes no object of envy or petty jealousy because its members become part of the entire school activity program. It sponsors superior entertainments and activities of its own—stunt shows, school parties, carnivals. It is careful to make many of these activities available to much of the student body and yet discreetly reserve a few, well-chosen ones for the active membership of the debate organization. Because it is active, because it is not exclusive, because it constantly works for the betterment of the

school, because it consistently has something new to intrigue young minds, it is socially and educationally dynamic and attractive.

#### GOOD DEBATE PROGRAMS CAN FINANCE THEMSELVES

These varied activities are valuable on other counts too. In most schools, financing a debate program of any dimension is sometimes difficult, a large program impossible. Sometimes this is because many schools have not reconciled themselves to paying from budgeted funds for extracurricular activities, although recent thinking is slowly modifying that reluctance. Elsewhere, the program may not have proved its worth, or the school funds may simply be inadequate to pay for an extracurricular debate program. In some schools the students pay their own expenses attached to participation in the program; and, while this can be justified as an extra expense for special work beyond the curriculum, like piano lessons, nevertheless it often works a real hardship on many students and may even exclude them from the activity. Besides, it is a little inconsistent to pay all the expenses of athletes or band members and, at the same time, ask debaters to pay theirs.

But the program can be made to pay for itself. The activities of which we have just spoken provide innumerable ways of raising money. In addition to providing revenue for the debating program, raising the money helps provide a real appreciation of the activity and its worth, encourages oneness within the organization, and provides valuable experiences in making better debaters and better persons. In our own particular high school, the debating organization, through an annual carnival, which was supplemented, if need be, by handling concessions at athletic games or by stunt shows or musical revues, found it easy to raise as much as \$2,500 during a school year. More could have been raised if we had wished. Not only did the organization pay for its medals, letters, and other awards, all its books and other materials, entry fees, National Forensic League emblems, and travel expenses, but it was, each year, also able to buy physical equipment, such as radios, amplifiers, *etc.*, for the speech department or donate money at some needful charity; for instance, twice the organization gave sums of about five hundred dollars or more to the Red Cross. Thus, ingenuity and activity make financing the program desirable and beneficial rather than letting it be an obstacle which restricts the work.

#### GOOD DEBATE PROGRAMS COME FROM GOOD PLANNING AND DIRECTION

I have mentioned at length the values as I have seen them accrue from a well-managed debate program—values to the school, the com-

munity, and the individuals themselves. Before my eyes have developed scores of young men and women, maturing at a rate scarcely credible. I have seen large numbers of this group progressively improve their scholarship, their thinking, their personalities, and their characters. I have seen a high percentage of them go to colleges and universities, in many cases with valuable scholarships earned because of their speech experience. I have watched most of them almost instantly distinguish themselves in college, and some of them attain a success in their careers so quickly outstanding as to be called meteoric. I have seen their debating careers reflected dozens of ways and have heard these ex-debaters point out additional ways themselves. In my mind I am sure of the effects of a good debating program. I do not believe this to be a viewpoint prejudiced by my having been a debate coach, for I have also coached athletics and still do, have taught in several other fields; have directed drama, oratory, radio, and allied speech work; and have been doing administrative work. I am sure of the worth of the debate program.

How can a good program be introduced and implemented? The crux of the problem of carrying on a program in high school seems mainly to be how to secure a debate director and encourage his work properly. The choice of a good director, male or female, ranks first, of course. Debating presently has a place in too few high schools. In many places in which there is a program, it is assigned to an unprepared or disinterested person, already too busy. The results in these cases can seldom be of great force. A good director, with adequate administrative support and encouragement, can accomplish wonders. If blocks of the curricular day can be assigned to the program—and this will, I realize, not be possible in most schools—further stimulation occurs. The program must be given a real and a useful place in the life of the school.

How extensive should a debating program be? We have said that much of the activity will not be merely debating at all, but will stem from valuable related speech activities and social activities. Too much travel in interscholastic programs can involve difficulties, although good supervision will reduce these to almost nothing. Much of the work will be local in character such as intramural debates, mock trials, research, and the other activities—social, recreational, project, entertainment—mentioned in this article.

But the interscholastic program should be as extensive as practicable in the school's program and should give participation to as many students as possible. Geographical factors will control schedules, but it is not uncommon for a large school to have 150 or more inter-

scholastic decision debates in a season, plus many non-decision debates, student congresses, and allied projects, without absence from school except an occasional day. It is highly desirable, naturally, not to bring disfavor on the program by interfering with the regular school program. This interscholastic aspect of school debating we should keep largely extracurricular, affording extra opportunities beyond the regular courses.

If it seems superficially that a program of this size may produce steadily diminishing values to the participants, the conclusion is more superficial than real. Here again we must call upon the director's discretion in giving just enough experience to each of his charges, varying their activities to avoid ennui. No one debater will engage in a tremendous number of debates; and let it be remembered, too, that tournament debating may give many debates to each school and several to each person in one day. Sometimes such tournaments allow the use of several teams from each school, so that a great number of interscholastic debates per season is possible. Each debate is a new experience in itself; each tournament is more than an episode, embracing, as it does, several debates per day for each speaker or team. The average debater will not find the program pall upon him; but a wise teacher will not push his debaters beyond the point of interest or accrued benefit.

#### GOOD DEBATE PROGRAMS ARE VARIED, ACTIVE, AND EXTENSIVE

The tournament has established itself as the most popular and perhaps most profitable form of interscholastic debating. The dual or triangular debate is still used by schools, especially by those geographically near to each other, and such debates are sometimes held to good advantage before classes or student assemblies. These debates give generally a better speaking opportunity to the debaters, for they must concern themselves with audiences and the persons composing them, whereas in tournament debating audiences are generally very small inasmuch as many debates are being held simultaneously. Audiences in tournament debates, consequently, are likely to consist of the debaters themselves, a judge, perhaps a chairman, and an occasional straggler, mother or father, or scout. And, thus, tournament debating fails to provide neophytic debaters with a most valuable opportunity, that of providing auditors who must be considered in the speakers' choice and use of materials, auditors who are to be informed or convinced.

Here, then, exists a woeful and apparent weakness in most debating programs. Since the factor of considering the audiences is axiomatic in giving speeches, since debates often fail to provide audiences, and since the debater's training often shows an abysmal



neglect in this area of speaking, too many debaters wage the contest hody but to almost complete snubbing of listeners. They use a jargon peculiar to their trade, filled with clichés and useless verbiage; they try to persuade, if anyone at all, the judge only; they deal with abstruse subjects, on which they are themselves informed, without supplying to their audiences the necessary analogies or premises to insure understanding; they fail to learn, or at least to make use of, the ordinary rhetorical devices that make materials understandable and interesting; they fail to communicate; they often neglect the ordinary courtesies of careful listening and polite consideration of their opponents, assuming a position that everything on this great and, we hope, two-sided question which may be said against the side they are defending, is wrong and must be disputed. The dearth of persons in audiences is, therefore, not merely a result of tournament debating; it is a result of failure on the part of debaters to give audiences the "break" they deserve.

Despite some inherent weaknesses, tournament debating appears to be the best current method of giving extensive debate experience to enough young men and women. Many schools can convene and, in a day's time, give experience in three or four debates to each participant from a school. Thus, if a school enters several teams, it may give opportunities to fifteen or twenty of its debaters in this one day.

The invitational tournaments generally give the greatest benefits to the largest number of participants and are likely to be freer from emphasis on winning. The regular state series of tournaments, set up in various areas by regular state speech associations or the National Forensic League, offer a point toward which to work as a season's climax. Although many schools regard the national debating tournament with disfavor, my feeling, based on having had teams in it some nine times, favors it decidedly. I personally believe it to have been the greatest secondary-school intellectual project I have ever witnessed. However, participation in it is a rare opportunity for most schools and is a question to be decided locally when it arises—if the state does not already have some kind of ruling on it.

#### DEBATE JUDGING NEED NOT BE TECHNICALLY EXPERT

No discussion of interscholastic debating should leave unmentioned the ever troublous problem of the judging. Of all those connected with debating, the judges are most maligned. Most debaters, concerned as deeply as they are with their own thinking and often partly oblivious to the effects being produced on listeners by their opponents, seldom believe they have lost a particular debate. What they mean as they talk is perhaps clear enough in their own minds; that they have not made it

evident to listeners is not clear to them. This may indicate partly a flaw in not being trained to see the force of arguments on both sides, partly a failure to study audiences and to try to influence them, and partly the human failure, common to us all, of over-evaluating ourselves and under-estimating others.

It is idle to believe that non-decision debates afford the same flavor to a debater that a decision debate does. Judging is a necessary concomitant of competitive debating. If it is not always expert, if there is often dissatisfaction with the decision, who can prove the judging bad except other judges, whose opinions are also opinions and who may also disagree with themselves?

The fact is that technically trained debate judges are not numerous, but perhaps that is just as well. Decisions may well be rendered by persons of intelligence and education, their judging being done on the total effect produced by a team. They perhaps base their decisions on which team impressed them more, which upheld its side the better, which did the better debating, or which team they would select if they were choosing one to represent them personally. Debate judging seems to be at its worst when too much analysis is made of the *parts* of the debate, trying to evaluate this bit of logic or decide the weight of that item of evidence. The total effect then becomes lost in the judge's own equivocation.

I do not believe that the quality of the judging of interscholastic debating contests, whatever our opinion of it, has done much to determine the future of the activity. It does determine a winner, and most persons do wish a winner to be declared. Besides, after a temporary "beef," which would be made by the loser regardless of who the judges might be, most debaters take the decision philosophically and keep right on debating, often with redoubled efforts.

Tournaments require lots of judges; the supply of experts is small, and the results obtained from debates judged by them are perhaps but little better anyway; budgets for paying judges are lean. The choice seems to be the one which has already been made: keep the decision type of debates and secure as well-informed, skillful, intelligent, and educated persons to judge them as can be found. By so doing, discontent will be reduced at least.

The fact remains that much of what most persons do in their lives is often judged by many persons who are technically inexpert in the matter and who are even less versed in it than is he whose work is being judged. Human living is a panorama of judgments by all kinds of persons. Let the debate decision be taken for what it may be worth, not over-emphasized or under-emphasized; a good debater fits it into

the pattern of his learning and profits by it. We hope that from it he learns, too, how to lose with dignity or win with grace.

The use, as judges, of the debate directors whose teams are entered in tournaments has grown in popularity and offers a convenient and expense-free method of judging. Coaches judge debates in which their own teams do not participate, and the practice generally meets little disfavor. Its chief shortcoming seems to be that in given geographical areas a special interpretation of the question develops during the season or certain debate "techniques" and emphases become common. If the tournament encompasses a large area, teams which utilize variant interpretations or emphases may be at a disadvantage when being judged by coaches from other areas. Of course, judges who are not coaches may be challenged in this respect also; but, if they are conscientious and educationally open-minded, good decisions can still be rendered.

Decision debates, then, are likely to stay with us. What ill effects come from decisions appear to be slight. Decisions are the life of competitive debate; and satisfactory judging can be done by large numbers of intelligent, well-educated persons, whether specially trained in debate or not.

#### GOOD DEBATING NEEDS PIONEER DIRECTORS

Throughout this article we have dwelt repeatedly on the thought that the worth of a debating program will be directly proportional to the excellence of its director. We have admittedly been discussing what we believe to be an ideal program but not so ideal as to be unattainable. We have hoped that the discussion of objectives and media would throw considerable light upon the type of person necessary to elicit the *maximae* to be hoped. Suffice it to say in recapitulation that the director need be a superior teacher, that he possess, as personal and educational endowments, those things we would desire in any outstanding teacher of any subject or area, keeping in mind always that this man or woman will be dealing, in extracurricular debate, with a higher percentage of superior and gifted students than he does in most classrooms and that special motivations are needed when ordinary classroom controls are missing. He needs to be a superior person himself, in attainments and personality, in patience, perseverance, and ingenuity. He needs keen insight into the problems of challenging and leading superior students. He needs to be a person whose self will inspire to their best efforts those who can do ordinary school work easily and who may have, as a consequence, lifelong habits of indolence or of having never extended themselves. He needs to be co-operative and

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of sterling character and personal worth. To be sure, these are ideals, but the superior debating director must cast long shadows in those directions.

Like all the branches of formal education, debating needs experimenters and pioneers. Formal debate still seems very much like the heritage of a half century ago. This is not meant to suggest that because it is old it has no place in modern school life; quite the contrary, the purposes and values appear to be sound, and the premise of formal oral controversy on which it was established seems educationally and otherwise profitable. However, our schools generally have run rearward of our culture, and changes too often follow laggardly.

Much can be done to streamline and popularize debate, and many forward-thinking directors have moved apace in doing so. They have scrapped the stereotyped procedures and language; they have abandoned the stilted, too formal, dry-as-dust treatment made famous by the old literary societies; they have found sympathy for audiences and made use of humor and persuasion to secure interest and clearness. They have experimented with the open forum, the congressional debate, and the cross-questioning type. They have made use of timely and vitally interesting subjects; they have tried to inform listeners rather than talk over their heads with a coldly logical case which another debater who has exhaustively studied the proposition can understand but which audiences cannot. They have used the radio, even the movie and television. Power to them! In their hands the future of a splendid activity looks good!

## CHAPTER X

# The Original Oration as a Speech Activity in the Secondary School

A. CRAIG BAIRD

WHY should secondary schools include among the speech activities the original oration? Is this speaking type not too specialized for high-school pupils? Do tests for frequency of use in later life lead administrators to question its inclusion in the school's speaking program? The original oration, we agree, is "specialized"; it is for the more capable performers; as an art, it ranks among the more difficult projects. Practice in conversation, informational speaking, and everyday problems in controversial speaking should make up the general speech curriculum. Persuasive speech (which we have in mind when we discuss "oratory"), nevertheless, is not beyond the abilities of tenth-grade pupils. We tend to underestimate the capacities of many of those pupils. Interscholastic speech leagues, in the recent decades, have found educational profit in this art.<sup>1</sup> Something more than tradition has justified these survivals. The educational values of such presentations are deemed important. Aside from the pupil's own training in the composition and delivery of these speeches, his contact with the traditions of American oratory gives him much insight into our historical ideals. If he is properly guided, he also develops standards for evaluating the public speeches of the hour and can better distinguish the genuine.

### WHAT IS AN ORATION?

The original oration should be viewed as a persuasive public speech. If it is less confusing to the pupil to label it merely as "pub-

<sup>1</sup>For example, the Iowa High-School Forensic League has had such competition since 1934. Note also the programs of the National Forensic League and those of many other state Speech Leagues. Colleges, for many years, have also sponsored original oratory. The Northern Oratorical League, in 1952, including Northwestern, Iowa, Minnesota, Western Reserve, Michigan, and Wisconsin Universities, was founded in 1890. Such intercollegiate speaking events have also been sponsored by Pi Kappa Delta and Tau Kappa Alpha, honorary forensic organizations.

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lic speaking," well and good inasmuch as no magical line separates excellent persuasive speech from the "oration."

As commonly considered, the original oration is public speaking in which the emotional and imaginative elements are especially prominent. We do not imply that the other marks of a well-rounded speech are obscured. Present in all good speeches should be robust ideas, ample and concrete forms of support, satisfactory structure, excellence of language, and effective delivery. The orator, however, is especially stimulated by his ideas and the speaking situation—more so than is the debater or informational talker. This orator does not minimize soundness of thinking or weight of content, but he does permeate the whole with his aroused personality. He identifies his logical materials with powerful ethical and pathetic proofs. He appeals to fear, hope, indignation, pride, sacrifice, and other motives. He does not insert these elements as addenda, but naturally voices such appeals. He, moreover, establishes his own platform leadership and personality. This factor of personal proof—the speaker's integrity, good will, and character—is never absent from important oratory. To make effective these practical aims, moreover, he develops distinctive language. His mood and, therefore, his vocabulary are those of the artist more than those of a reporter or entertainer.

Contrast more concretely the oration with the other representative speaking types. Four categories make up the bulk of speaking—the forensic, deliberative, occasional, and the demonstrative. The forensic, that of the bar, calls for evidence and judicial proof; the object is to acquit or condemn the accused. The deliberative, that of municipal, state, and national legislative bodies, consists of debate under parliamentary law. A resolution or bill is voted up or down. The third type, the speech of occasion, is represented by the school and college lectures, the technical papers before professional groups, the informal talks before service clubs, and the community popular lectures, the radio news reports. The oration, by contrast, is a demonstrative speech. The primary aim is to impress or persuade. Examples are Daniel Webster at the laying of the Bunker Hill Monument cornerstone, June 17th, 1826; Lincoln at Gettysburg; Winston Churchill announcing to the world the surrender of Germany; and Douglas MacArthur, on the battleship Missouri, receiving the surrender of Japan.

Note, however, that although typical occasions for demonstrative speaking are those of observing national holidays, eulogies of great figures, dead or living, speeches of farewell, nomination, and the like, the performance of any other type listed above may emerge as a genuine oration. All depends upon the subject, speaker, occasion, and

audience. The courtroom pleader—for example, William Wirt, Rufus Choate, Clarence Darrow—may, in the course of his summation speech, become genuinely eloquent. So may the legislative debater. Webster, in his debate with Hayne on January 26th, 1830, moved to his climax of "Liberty and union, now and forever, one and inseparable." The late President Franklin Roosevelt, in his message to Congress on December 8th, 1941, asking for a declaration of war against Japan, clothed his facts with deep feeling. Young Wendell Phillips, a spectator at the Faneuil Hall Meeting in Boston, December 8th, 1837, called to consider the murder of Lovejoy at Alton, Illinois, gave an extempore speech that ranks as one of the historic American orations. Henry Grady, at a dinner meeting of the New England Society in New York, on December 22nd, 1886, talked on the "New South" so persuasively that his performance became an important American oration. David Lilienthal, testifying before the Joint Congressional Committee on Atomic Energy, on February 4th, 1947, when he was accused of Communist leanings, delivered an unrehearsed defense of his beliefs, oral testimony that the press hailed as one of the "most moving and eloquent definitions of democracy heard on Capitol Hill in many a year."

The oration, then, may arise in almost any speaking situation—provided the subject, speaker, occasion, and audience interact to make possible the creative process. At its best, oratory so evolves. Webster, in his oration on Adams and Jefferson, on August 2nd, 1826, thus explains the conditions under which true eloquence emerges: "When public bodies are to be addressed on momentous occasions, when great interests are at stake and strong passions excited, nothing is more valuable in speech further than as it is connected with high intellectual and moral endowments.... True eloquence, indeed, does not consist in speech.... It must exist in the man, in the subject, and in the occasion.... It comes, if it comes at all, like the outbursting of a fountain from the earth, of the bursting forth of volcanic fires, with spontaneous native force."

#### COMPOSITION AND DELIVERY OF THE ORATION

What are the techniques that enter into the composition and delivery of the original oration? How can a high-school pupil hope to emulate Wendell Phillips? The answer is that, in any field of art, the contributors at the top are few; no reason is there, however, why beginners may not be speakers. Required of the young orator is only that he talk on something that is important, that interests him, and that he can present with reasonable persuasiveness. Persuasive speaking has been repeatedly demonstrated with reasonable success by pupils.

## THE ORATOR'S PURPOSE

What is the orator's purpose? It is to inspire, or to persuade, or to do both. The speech that primarily impresses or inspires, strengthens the support already given to the object of the eulogy. The occasion may be that of paying tribute to a great person, living or dead; a eulogy of a city, state, or nation; a dedicatory service; the celebration of a holiday; the presenting of a gift; occasions of congratulation or farewell. After the death of Franklin D. Roosevelt, hundreds of spontaneous tributes were given in schools, churches, in Congress, and over the air.

A second purpose may be that of persuasion (influencing the belief and action of the audience). On such occasions the speaker often does what the debater attempts to do—to convince and persuade.

## THE SUBJECT

What subjects are best? Any controversial idea that grips the imagination is satisfactory. Economic, political, social, literary, military, and scientific topics have all been sources of inspiring addresses. Titles and suggested themes that have ranked high in state high-school final programs in original oratory have included: "the Constitution, Cradle of Liberty"; "Juvenile Delinquency and You"; "Industrialism *versus* Democracy"; "Fear Communism"; "If We Should Live" (a plea for world government); "The Lost Generation" (a plea for an attitude of hard work); "The Best Years of Their Lives" (child crime and the cure); "The Challenge" (a plea for toleration and solution of the Negro problem).<sup>3</sup>

The young orator may talk, for example, on some phase of free speech, military training, inflation, nation-wide free medical service, television, movies, national morality, control of narcotics, interscholastic athletics, lowering the voting age to eighteen, agricultural prices, highway accidents, and similar topics close to experience. In such selection, several principles are to be stressed. (1) *The subject should grow out of the experience and thinking of the orator.* The test of the fitness of theme to the speaker is important. Many orations have gone astray because of the gap between speaker and his topic. (2) *The*

<sup>3</sup>The annual Extension Bulletin of the Iowa High-School Forensic League Contests includes each year the names and subjects of the twelve participants in the state finals in original oratory. *Speech Activities* (Nichols Publishing House, Los Angeles, California) sometimes publishes secondary-school orations. *Winning Orations of the Northern Oratorical League for 1945-50* has been published by the Northwestern Press, Minneapolis, Minnesota. *Winning Orations of the Interstate Oratorical Association*, published annually by that association, is used by more than one thousand secondary schools.

*topic should have interest and appeal to the needs of the audience.* The more closely the ideas and appeals are shown to be vital to the audience, the more complete will be the circular response. (3) *The topics should be timely.* Newspaper headlines, radio and television discussions of the hour may well suggest what the public is thinking about. (4) *The topic should be important.* It is hard to work up a genuine and powerful oration on whether school credit should be given for school staff work. (5) *The topic should be limited.* Most younger (and older) orators cover wide territory in their twelve-hundred-word discourse. Those who advise the beginners (and veterans) should strongly urge that an oration on the United Nations should be limited to "the veto power in the Security Council." A talk on national mobilization of manpower for civilian and military needs should concentrate, for example, on "Shall women be drafted for military services?"

#### PRELIMINARY PREPARATION

The composition of a satisfactory oration is more than an afternoon's job. The need is to start early and to indicate systematic progress through the several weeks. How is material to be gathered? The student is encouraged to converse with schoolmates and others who will stimulate thinking on the topic; to interview those in the community with information and ideas; to attend to radio and television programs that deal with the topic; to read and take systematic notes from books, magazines, and newspapers. Paralleling such development, he will give short speeches, in class or out, on the topic. Thus will the orator's ideas, thinking, composition, and delivery mature.

#### ORGANIZATION

One of two general methods of organization is typical. If the oration is a eulogy, the pattern is usually that of expounding three or four distinctive traits of the person, institution, or event. If, as is more frequently the case, the speech discusses a question of the day, the thematic development treats (a) problem and (b) solution.

Contemporary eulogies that exalt certain features of a person or event include R. H. Baukhage's tribute to Roosevelt; Churchill's "Humanity's Loss" (Roosevelt); Dwight D. Eisenhower's "American Red Cross" (eulogy is combined with appeal for support); R. B. Gittelsohn's "That Men May Be Free (at the dedication of American military graves); John L. Lewis' "In Support of Willkie" (eulogy is combined with political appeal); Archibald MacLeish's "Tribute to Wendell Willkie"; Edgar R. Murrow's "Farewell to England"; Bernard J. Sheil's "Tribute

to Roosevelt"; Dorothy Thompson's "Let's Face the Facts" (eulogy of Churchill).<sup>3</sup>

### OUTLINING

The student is urged to work from an outline. As the discourse shapes itself, he may modify his proposed blueprint. Detailed outlining, nevertheless, is essential. A complete sentence form should be used for main headings, with inclusion of illustrations and other details. This guide will help to preserve the unity of the oration, a proper order of development, and a wise proportion of each section. The mechanics of the outline, however, need not be carried over in the composition itself. A good oration is not at all as mechanical in structure as is the school or college debate speech.

### FORMS OF SUPPORT

The orator must create and hold interest. His materials will be at once logical and emotional (persuasive). The development of his ideas must necessarily contain relatively abstract statements. His oration, nevertheless, will include much from his personal experiences since personal references, if properly introduced, will add to the appeal. Student orations have begun with, "Have you ever been slapped in the face? I have." "I go to church regularly, the same church to which my father goes." "In a railway station the other day I saw American youth." "I am a typical high-school student—typical a product of the American educational system." Specific examples, personal narrative, authorities (not too many in any one speech), statistics (sparingly used and in round numbers), vivid comparisons, striking analogies ("You don't need to use your windshield wiper on the paved highway on a sunny afternoon,") quotations, (few and unhackneyed ones), references to recent reading, or to movies, television programs, headline events—such materials will illumine and strengthen the core of the logic or general ideas.

### COMPOSITION

The writer of an original oration should use his own vocabulary, the language reflecting his individuality. Most school orations lack this personal quality. They are formal and artificial; they may suggest Bryan. Certainly students should study Henry, Calhoun, Clay, Webster, Lincoln, Douglas, Ingersoll, Phillips, Grady, Bryan, Beveridge, the Roosevelts, and Wilson; but the style of these masters belongs to each

<sup>3</sup>These and other eulogies are reprinted in *Representative American Speeches*, an annual publication in the Reference Shelf Series, H. W. Wilson Company. The most recent collection indexes all speeches of the preceding volumes.

of them and to nobody else. Their speeches are of their time and place. The speaker of 1952 and later will use the language of his day and of his own education.

The composition should be simple, direct, oral, brief—as becomes Edward R. Murrow or any other radio reporter who must make his point in five or ten minutes. Sentences should be uncomplicated and not studded with flowery terms. Triteness will be avoided. Some originality of phrasing should occur. The composer will write and rewrite, but he will always substitute the oral style for the “written” mode. Always he will be clear and concrete.

This oration will also be interesting and emotionally stimulating. To persuade he will ask questions; repeat salient terms; introduce slogans, and use imperative, balanced and exclamatory construction. He will coin appropriate figures of speech, sharp metaphors, and other elements of heightened prose. These turns of style will not be mechanically injected. All should normally spring from the speaker's aim to stimulate hearers and to do so by lively, yet individual, unforced composition.

#### DELIVERY

The superior orator, like all other good speakers, is conversational. He is never declamatory or oratorical. Rather he speaks directly, with intensity, rate, and pitch well under his control and adapted to the speaking situation. He projects well to his audience. He uses no unfortunate “preacher tone” or other false inflectional pattern. Faculty counsel will help to correct such vocal practices. His gestures, posture, and bodily movements, too, will be unstudied and will grow out of his reaction to his ideas. He will have a lively sense of communication, but he will not be a windmill. And he will avoid the extremes of appearing either as a statue or as a platform pacer. He will be a gentleman (or lady) conversing, but so absorbed in his subject as to communicate through voice and bodily action the strength of his convictions. His personality in the delivery will be that of a person who is sincere, open-minded. Qualities of pleasing personality are as important in delivery as good vocal quality. Fundamental in the training in effective delivery is the cultivation of a personality that is genuinely sincere, generous, optimistic, and morally sound. At the bottom, every orator worth-while is literally a “good man speaking well.”

#### ORATORY IN THE SCHOOL CURRICULUM

Although special classes in oratorical composition and delivery are seldom indicated, units of instruction in the appreciation and com-

position of that speech type are to be included in representative courses in public speaking. The instruction should be under a competent teacher of speech whose educational philosophy is that of developing individual expression and to do so without resort to excesses of competition. Competition in speech activities is well justified provided the educational values are fully preserved.

#### JUDGING THE ORIGINAL ORATION

What are the standards of excellence by which the student orator is to be judged? Because the results are obviously the outcome of unusual preparation in study, composition, and delivery, a high standard of performance is expected. Several criteria, as suggested by the discussion above, are to be applied. (1) *Choice of subject*. Is it important, timely, limited, adapted to the speaker, audience, and occasion? (2) *Thought*. Is it important, original? Are the ideas analyzed with thoroughness by cause-and-effect methods, or by classificational divisions? (3) *Forms of support*. Are the details specific and varied—with citations of figures, specific cases, historical or other analogies, personal experiences, hypothetical or authentic illustrations, authorities, quotations? (4) *Organization*. Is the speech well-developed with introduction, discussion, and conclusion? Does the structure have unity, sequence, proportion? Does each serve its part in stating the theme, enlisting interest, or summarizing and enforcing? (5) *Language or composition*. Is the vocabulary clear, interesting, without floridity? Is the style fresh, distinctive, unhackneyed, personal? Is sufficient imaginative-emotional quality present to make the composition a genuine oration? Does the style suit the subject, the speaker, and occasion? (6) *Audience adaptation*. Does the speaker so adapt his theme as to gain maximum response from the audience? (7) *Delivery*. Does the speaker project effectively to his audience? Is he fluent? Does he have a lively sense of communication and ease of recall? Does his delivery sound extempore rather than memorized? What of his pitch, quality, rate, vocal intensity? Are his pronunciation and articulation satisfactory? Does he have proper control of his bodily action? Do his gestures, posture, and bodily changes add to his persuasiveness? Is he free from bombast and declamation? Does he have self-confidence, humor, good taste, tact, generosity, good will, modesty, sincerity? (8) *Total effectiveness*. The estimate of superior speaking is determined primarily not by focusing on language or ideas, or on delivery, but by taking account of the combination of separate skills. The speaker, as it is most generally obvious, utilizes all skills as a single process.



For classroom purposes these criteria may be reduced to the following five point rating scale. More important, however, than such evaluation are the informal, oral comments by the teacher and pupils.

<i>Criteria</i>	<i>Rating*</i>	<i>Comments</i>
Choice of subject	(1-5)	
Thought		
Forms of support		
Organization		
Use of language		
Delivery and speaking personality		
Audience response		
Total effectiveness		
Totals _____		
* Superior, 5; excellent, 4; standard, 3; below standard, 2 or 1. Notes:		

#### INTRASCHOOL AND INTERSCHOLASTIC CONTESTS

Should secondary-school pupils be encouraged to enter intraschool contests for prizes or other awards in oratory? Should they be encouraged to compete in interscholastic oratory at the state or national level? It all depends on the way such participation is controlled. Speech teachers unanimously condemn undue emphasis on "winning at all costs." The writing of speeches by teachers, sometimes done, is most deplorable and has brought the original oration into disrepute. So, too, is the drilling of the youth until he or she becomes an automaton. The jockeying for judges who may favor a given school and who otherwise may not be qualified has also helped to cause much criticism of these contests.

If, however, the pupil can be trained to state his message with "winning" as a secondary motive, if he has an honest attitude toward this competitive occasion, if the "coaches" and judges have a proper understanding of what good speaking is, then the performance can be of immense value. The Iowa State Forensic League, for example, has successfully stressed the educational values of these speaking performances.

Two methods of judging such contest participants are used. One is to rate the speakers according to their relative rank. The instructions to the judges in the Iowa High School Forensic League are: "Each contest will be judged by three, five, or fewer judges. The judge will mark on general excellence, including thought, composition, and delivery, and rank the speakers first, second, and third according to their excellence. In a contest, any speakers who have been ranked first by a majority of the judges, shall be awarded first place. If no speaker is thus ranked, the ranks of each speaker shall be totaled and the speaker thus having the lowest sum of ranks shall be given first place. The ranks of the remaining contestants shall be renumbered and the second place determined in the same manner as the first place."

A second method, preferably, is to have each judge rate the participant as superior, 5; excellent, 4; standard, 3; below standard, 2; or inferior, 1. Such estimate might mean that more than one participant could thus achieve the highest rank—a fairer appraisal, often, than that of rank order, which differentiates between those who ordinarily would fall into the same group. More and more schools are resorting to this second mode of rating. The "superiors" and "excellents" are regarded as of more educational significance than "first place," which, after all, might not mean superior achievement. Furthermore, the rank order tells little of the performer's conformity to standards of speaking excellence. With proper training of the speakers by qualified speech teachers and with desirable standards of evaluating the performances, original oratory deserves continued support as a speech activity.

## Extemporaneous Speaking and Oratorical Declamation as Speech Activities in the Secondary School

GLEN E. MILLS

EXTEMPORANEOUS speaking is that variety of original speaking which should be prepared well but not memorized or read from manuscript by the speaker. Before he is called upon to speak, an extemporaneous speaker knows what his subject is, and he may study it and prepare an outline. In other words, all but the exact wording of the speech may be prepared in advance.

The best speaking of this type calls for exacting preparation; yet the finished product is expected to retain the qualities of the best conversation—directness, eagerness to communicate, informality, ease, spontaneity, flexibility, and the like. This kind of speaking should, of course, be done in public speaking classes. However, in this article we are concerned only with its use in intramural and interscholastic competition.

It is presumed that the contest activities are extensions of the classroom work in speech. For this reason, the doctrine of the present article is not to be viewed as a substitute for the textbooks which set out the principles of public speaking. Even so, the contestants may need reminding to practice the principles relating to general preparation (reading, studying, writing, traveling, observing, reasoning, imagining, *etc.*), personality development, delivery, arrangement of materials, analysis of subject and audience, straight thinking, investigation, evidence and illustrations, speech purposes, exposition, narration, description, motivation, and language.

Contestants in this activity need, in addition to a grasp of these principles, an understanding of contest rules and judges' criteria. The rules and procedures vary among the several parts of the country, but the basic scheme involves the drawing of specific subjects, a limited time for final preparation, and the delivery of a speech within a time limit.

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Entries are limited in nearly all interscholastic competition. A few leagues provide separate divisions for boys and girls, and some specify junior and senior standing. Most, however, do not specify sex or class; but they do limit the entries to one, two, or three speakers per school. In some states the rules prevent the use of a student in more than one or two events.

Students who are preparing for extemporaneous speaking contests should read and keep note files on articles appearing in the *American Observer*, *Time*, *Harper's*, *Newsweek*, *Platform* (*Newsweek Supplement*), *Current History*, *Scholastic*, *New York Times*, and other metropolitan dailies. Each league or tournament manager specifies the publications and possibly the issues thereof from which subjects will be taken. Such a list should be regarded as a minimum, because the best-prepared students will have read beyond the official list. If the state league rules specify all issues of *Time* and *Newsweek* for three months preceding the contest, a serious competitor should list the subjects in those twenty-four pieces of material and look for additional points of view on those subjects in other periodicals and books. Obviously, the method of compiling the list will affect the investigative procedure.

Most organizations provide for the compilation of an official list of subjects in advance of a contest, but rarely is a list made available to the contestants prior to the drawing of individual subjects. In some states the league manager sends a list of subjects to the persons in charge of district and regional contests. Some groups have no prepared lists, but the visiting teachers are asked to submit subjects.

In this connection there are two widely different plans in use. The first is the choice of subjects in terms of specified publications and dates of issue, as explained above. The second is the choice of one broad subject and the subdividing of it to make up a list of specific subjects which the contestants will draw. For example, if the official subject field were "Russian-American Relations," the following might be the specific subjects which the contestants would draw shortly before the contest: "What Does Russia Seem to Want?", "What Does America Insist Upon?", "Are We Losing the Cold War?", "Can We Negotiate with Russia?", "Is the Containment of Russian Expansion Feasible?" etc. In case the latter system is used, each participating school is notified in advance concerning the general subject to be used in the contest. Then each contestant and his teacher should compile a list of likely specific subjects as a basis for their preparation. A thorough job at this stage will reduce the likelihood of one's drawing an unfamiliar subject in the contest.

Approximately one hour before he is scheduled to speak, a contestant draws three subjects and selects one. The order of speaking is likewise determined by a drawing. If the contestants are not supposed to hear each other's speeches, they draw their subjects at eight-minute intervals in order that all speakers will have exactly the same preparation time. The diversity of subjects does not, however, equalize the difficulty of preparation, this problem being met in part by prohibiting the use of a subject on which the contestant has spoken previously.

Whether a contestant may take materials with him to his private preparation room is a point of difference among tournaments. In some leagues a student may carry as many periodicals and notes as he wishes, while in others he may not use previously prepared notes. No rules permit consultation with other persons during the period of final preparation. The intent is to encourage broad reading and to prevent the use of "canned" speeches. Since this is a contest in original speaking, each student is expected to prepare his own speech.

Although most rules do not prohibit the use of some notes during the delivery of a speech, there is a tendency to limit the use of such aids. Word limits and the size of the card on which the notes are written are occasionally specified. In a few situations, notes are banned, while in others the matter is left to the discretion of the judge. Regardless of the rules, the best speakers seldom use notes.

Time limits vary between five and eight minutes as a maximum. In a few states, there is a range between a five-minute minimum and a seven-minute maximum. Penalties for speaking under the minimum or over the maximum are usually provided in the judges' instructions. Timekeepers, as in school debates, display numbered cards which indicate the remaining time. When the maximum time has elapsed, the timekeepers rise, indicating that the speaker's time has elapsed.

There is a growing tendency to add a question-and-answer period to the series of speeches. This device further tests the originality and the thoroughness of preparation. Participants are notified that each is to appear three times—to give a speech, to question another contestant, and to answer a question. In this situation, all persons draw subjects at the same time, and all take seats on the stage when the program begins.

A chairman announces subjects, speakers' names, and the order of questions and answers. In the main speech, a contestant addresses himself specifically to the drawn subject as phrased. In his one-minute questioning, he must ask about the subject of another person's speech. He may ask for a reaction to an opposing viewpoint, call for more support on some point, or probe the speaker's analysis. In his

two-minute reply, he need not answer an irrelevant question, but he must ask for clarification or otherwise make a sincere effort to earn the approval of a thoughtful audience. He need not ask, "Does that answer your question?" The rules provide for only one question and one answer during one exchange.

It has been suggested that the contest would be more interesting to audiences and fairer to the contestants if all speeches were on the same subject. That subject would be a full statement, such as an editorial, a resolution, or a digest of a prominent person's speech. Whether or not a program of seven talks on one statement of 100 to 300 words would be an improvement is a question that needs to be answered.

Judges are equipped with ballots, instructions, rating scales, or other aids. Official ballots contain speakers' names or numbers, their subjects, and columns in which to write scores, totals, and ranks. Sometimes there are printed instructions which suggest criteria such as adaptation, general preparation, oral composition, quality of questions and answers, and the like. Some ballots require that main speeches be graded between fifty per cent and seventy-five per cent, questions ten per cent or less, and answers fifteen per cent or less. The use of scores as well as a rank order facilitates the breaking of ties. Quality ratings of superior, excellent, good, fair, and unsatisfactory are often given in lieu of a first, second, and third rank order. Scoring is accomplished by counting "superior" as five points, "excellent" as four points, and so on. The highest total wins the contest.

Participation in extemporaneous speaking contests that are properly conducted should supplement the work of the speech classes in developing students in these respects: (1) confidence and poise in social adaptation, (2) communicativeness in voice, language, ideas, and physical control, (3) personality in terms of sincerity, friendliness, information, and judgment, (4) skills of analysis, investigation, and organization, (5) audience analysis and adaptation, and (6) critical thinking in reading, writing, speaking, and listening.

The teacher in charge of this activity should make available the following specialized books and the periodicals mentioned above:

- Fort, L. *Speech for All*. Boston: Allyn and Bacon. 1944.
- Holley, D. L. *Extempore Speaking*. New York: H. W. Wilson Company. 1947.
- Melzer, A. E. *High-School Forensics*. New York: H. W. Wilson Co. 1940.
- O'Neill, J. M. *Extemporaneous Speaking*. New York: Harper and Bros. 1946.
- Sarett, L.; Foster, W. T.; and McBurney, J. H. *Speech: A High School Course*. New York: Houghton-Mifflin Co. 1943.
- Weaver, A. T., and Borchers, G. *Speech*. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Co. 1945.

## ORATORICAL DECLAMATION

This speech activity involves the delivery from memory of speeches which were originally prepared by others. It is, therefore, not a contest in original speaking, but is, in fact, more accurately classified as oral interpretation than public speaking. Students in this activity are trained in the oral interpretation of oratorical prose.

One criticism of this activity is that a few old favorite selections are used to excess. One does not enjoy hearing "Spartacus to the Gladiators," "Liberty or Death," or "A Vision of War" several times in one contest, although this is, of course, less boring than hearing twenty high-school baritone soloists sing "Sylvia" in one contest. The problem of freshness, variety, and appropriateness can be met by using modern materials which are suited to the declaimers. Sources of such selections include *Representative American Speeches*, *Vital Speeches*, *Winning Orations of the Interstate Oratorical Association*, and *Winning Orations of the Northern Oratorical League*.

Oratorical declamation can be defended as an educational exercise only if the participants are taught something about speech composition and delivery which will help them to become more competent in original speaking. For this reason, participation is in some states limited to ninth- and tenth-grade pupils. The older students are expected to enter contests in extemporaneous speaking or original oratory.

In order to encourage the right kind of growth, the following criteria are often listed on criticism sheets and judges' instructions: directness, sincerity, illusion of reality, poise, meaningful use of voice, effectiveness of bodily action, and accurate phrasing. Teen-age persons are not expected to imitate elder statesmen. They should interpret their selections as if they were speaking the original speakers' words. This is more likely to happen if modern speeches by young persons are used in such contests. In short, *thorough understanding* should precede the steps of memorizing and rehearsing.

The preceding comments suggest that oratorical declamation should be viewed as an exercise in communication, not exhibitionism. This activity should not place a premium upon vocal gymnastics, patterned gestures, and imitative postures. It should teach young people how more effectively to bring a speaker's message to an audience. Its unique value in teaching the delivery skills stems from the fact that, since the speaker knows the words, he can concentrate upon the refinement of his delivery.



## PART III—MISCELLANEOUS

### CHAPTER XII

# Newer Types of Extracurricular Activities in Public Speaking

KENNETH G. HANCE

THROUGHOUT this publication, emphasis has been placed upon the conviction that a good program of speech education, especially in public speaking, should include curricular and extracurricular opportunities in both inquiry and advocacy. At several points, reference has been made to courses and activities designed to provide these opportunities.

The purpose of this article is not specifically to restate these objectives and procedures, but to review the many activities designed by school and college educators to provide students with a wide variety of experiences in inquiry and advocacy. No attempt is made to indicate relative merits, especially since each of the activities has specific values in terms of various considerations, such as the type of experience desired (inquiry or advocacy), the novelty desired, and the amount of integration among types of experiences which may be desired. Rather, an attempt is made to set forth the objectives and procedures of each activity, and to indicate its relationship to the broad areas of inquiry and advocacy.

For several decades extracurricular, or co-curricular, activities in public speaking have consisted largely of debates, extemporaneous speaking contests, and oratorical contests designed to assist in the training of the advocate. Their educational justification has rested in the fact that, through them, students are motivated to put into practice the knowledge and skills practiced in the classroom. And this is justification enough, because there can be little question as to the value of the motivation arising from contests, whether intramural or interscholastic.

During the past few years, however, a number of educators have concluded that the changing emphasis in classroom teaching, which

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provides nearly as much training in inquiry as in advocacy, should be accompanied by a changing emphasis in co-curricular activities. They have attempted to correlate the exercise which trains the advocate with the exercise which trains the investigator or reflective thinker. They have wished to motivate the training of both intentional, or projective, reasoners and reflective, or investigative, thinkers. They have sought to place as much emphasis upon working *to* a proposition as upon working *from* a proposition. Consequently, they have proposed several modifications of traditional educational debate and other contests in public speaking to include wherever possible certain elements of both discussion and persuasion.<sup>1</sup>

In some cases the modification has been slight. Frequently the basic point of view of debate has been retained, but provision has been made for a slightly broader treatment of the proposition, together with some participation by the audience. In other cases, the emphasis is about evenly divided between reflective thinking (inquiry) and intentional reasoning (advocacy), with both discussion and persuasion included in that order in a given exercise or project. In these instances, the attempt has been made to construct an exercise which begins with a problem, analyzes it, proposes solutions, and argues the merits of these solutions. Here discussion (inquiry) in method and spirit is used until the final step, when persuasion or advocacy becomes the method.

In the following description of these plans, no attempt is made to construct a rigid classification into inquiry and advocacy. To do so would be unwise, because several of the plans can be placed in either category depending upon the emphasis which an observer places on one feature or another of the plans. Rather, these are presented within the framework of a *continuum*, with one pole representing pure advocacy (debate, oratory, etc.) and the other discussion or inquiry; and a number of plans are arrayed along that *continuum*. The purpose is to call attention both to the existence of these plans and to their relationships to discussion and persuasion.

The typical educational debate, with the two teams upholding the two sides of a proposition, is too well known to require description here. It is an example of pure advocacy, of presenting the best possible case for each side of a predetermined proposition. It ordinarily limits the debate to a consideration of the two sides of the proposition, the only exception being in the case of argument over a counter proposition submitted by the negative in a proposition of policy.

A slight modification is seen in the three-sided debate, which has three teams, each upholding a solution or plan. The proponents of this

<sup>1</sup>No attempt is made here to include contests in *oratory* and in *extemporaneous speaking*; they have been thoroughly treated in preceding articles.

form of debate believe that, as there are ordinarily more than two sides to a proposition, thorough treatment requires the consideration of at least three plans. Here is a slight movement along the *continuum* toward discussion. While the element of advocacy remains, there is a breadth of approach which is nearer that of discussion than that of the traditional debate.<sup>2</sup> A further slight modification is observed in the "direct clash" plan of debate. Here the number of persons on a team is flexible—two to five—and the duties of the members of the two teams are somewhat different from the traditional duties. The first affirmative speaker defines the terms, explains the affirmative proposal, and explains the issues of the debate. The first negative speaker then replies, indicating the issues accepted for a clash and those admitted. The debate must then be limited to those issues upon which there is disagreement. The purpose of the preliminary speeches is to outline the issues, present the affirmative plan and the negative counter plan—if there is one—and prepare the way for the introduction of proofs in the subsequent speeches. While this plan is, of course, primarily debate, it does have some features of discussion such as (1) the provision for a period of careful definition; (2) the provision for explanation of issues and solutions before argument takes place.<sup>3</sup>

A further modification is observed in the cross-question type of debate. Whether it is a dialogue, the court technique, or the typical "Oregon Plan," it has greater variety and adaptability than the traditional debate. It is still an example of advocacy, and the two sides of a proposition are present; but in its emphasis upon questioning and exploration, it has some of the features of discussion.<sup>4</sup>

#### FOUR PLANS OF DEBATE

A very important modification is seen in four plans which have several features in common: (1) the Debate Symposium; (2) the Co-operative Investigation; (3) the Intercollegiate Forum; and (4) the Problem Solving Debate.

The *Debate Symposium* provides for four teams of two members each. The first speaker for each team states his team's position, and the subsequent speakers may amplify their colleagues' remarks, may cross-question any of the speakers of the other teams, may refute any

<sup>2</sup>See Raymond F. Howes, *Debating* (Boston: D. C. Heath and Company, 1931), p. 138; Carroll P. Lahman, *Debate Coaching* (New York: H. W. Wilson Company, 1936), p. 41; James H. McBurney, James M. O'Neill, and Glen E. Mills, *Argumentation and Debate* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1951), p. 283.

<sup>3</sup>See Edwin H. Paget, "Rules for the Direct Clash Plan," *The Quarterly Journal of Speech*, October, 1937, pp. 431-433.

<sup>4</sup>See J. S. Gray, "The Oregon Plan of Debating," *The Quarterly Journal of Speech Education*, April, 1926, pp. 175-179; W. A. Guthrie, "The Reserve Plan for Intercollegiate Discussion," *The Quarterly Journal of Speech*, October, 1939, pp. 392-396.

of the preceding arguments, or may restate and summarize the positions which they are upholding. Ordinarily, the audience is invited to participate in an open-forum at the conclusion of the speeches of the debaters.<sup>5</sup>

The *Co-operative Investigation* provides for the analysis of a problem in a manner similar to that of the traditional steps in problem solving (definition, analysis, solutions, and evaluation of solutions), each speaker of the six in a group being assigned to a topic. The first three speeches are in a category called "Understanding the Problem," and the others pertain to "Suggested Solutions." The first three speeches are explanatory and investigative, whereas the last three are argumentative and advocacy.<sup>6</sup>

The *Intercollegiate Forum* provides for a group of four speakers, the first explaining the background and present status of the problem as a basis for the proposals of the other speakers. Each of the other speakers then presents a proposal as a solution to the problem; then continues with a speech of restatement or refutation of the plans submitted. There is no premium placed upon the maintenance of the point of view originally held; in fact, a speaker may withdraw his proposal and proceed to defend the point of view of another speaker if he wishes. The features of this forum which lie in the direction of discussion (inquiry) are several: (1) it provides for orderly definition and analysis of the problem; (2) it provides for the introduction of several proposals; and (3) it makes provision for a modification of one's original position.<sup>7</sup>

The *Problem Solving Debate* provides for three sets of speeches (analysis, solution, and evaluating) by two teams of two or three speakers each. The duty of the first speaker on each team is to present an unbiased analysis of the problem. His function is to give all the facts necessary to an understanding of the situation which has produced the problem, to discover the factors involved in the solution of the problem, and if possible to set up certain criteria by which the solutions may be judged. The duty of the second speaker is to present the solution which he and his teammates believe to be the best one, and to show why this solution is the best and why it would solve the problem. The duty of the third speaker on each team (in the case of two-speaker teams, the first speaker usually presents the third speech also) is to weigh the solutions presented by both sides, agreeing or disagreeing as the case may be. He may question any of the previous speakers, and they must answer briefly and to the point. His conclusion

<sup>5</sup>See H. F. Harding, "A Debate Symposium," *The Speaker*, May, 1938, p. 6.

<sup>6</sup>See H. L. Ewbank, "The Wisconsin Public Discussion Contest," *The Gavel*, May, 1938, p. 54.

<sup>7</sup>See A. B. Williamson, "A Proposed Change in Intercollegiate Debating," *The Quarterly Journal of Speech*, February, 1933, pp. 192, 200-202.

may agree or disagree with that of his colleagues; his aim should be to discover the best solution regardless of his past beliefs. He may even offer a new solution if it seems warranted.

The three sets of speeches are judged upon the following bases: (1) analysis speeches—unbiased approach, adequate presentation of facts, successful discovery of difficulties, adequate criteria for judgment, effective presentation; (2) solution speeches—freedom from prejudice, co-operative effort, logical argument, adequacy of solution to meet analyzed difficulties, effective presentation; (3) evaluating speeches—fair and judicial attitude, analysis and comparison of solutions presented, soundness of conclusions, co-operative effort, effectiveness of presentation.

The features of the Problem Solving Debate in the direction of discussion are several: (1) it provides for orderly definition and analysis of the problem, including attention to criteria for the judging of solutions; (2) it provides for the introduction of several proposals; (3) it provides for the informal give and take of discussion through questions and answers; and (4) it provides for a modification of one's original position, even to the point of disagreeing with the position of one's colleague.<sup>8</sup>

#### OTHER PLANS

The next modifications constitute significant departures from traditional debate. In the *Discussion Progression* and the *Student Congress* each participant proceeds through several stages in essentially the method and spirit of discussion, these stages being followed by others in the method and spirit of debate. The participant engages, first, in a round-table or informal discussion group; then, proceeds to a panel discussion and perhaps a symposium; and, finally, to legislative or contest debate. In the respect that each person participates in all of these procedures, these plans represent probably the most extensive modifications of traditional debate and of contests in persuasion in the direction of discussion. Furthermore, in providing opportunities for a person to participate in inquiry concerning a problem as well as in advocacy concerning solutions to a problem, these plans represent probably the best types of experience for thorough training in both inquiry and advocacy.

The *Discussion Progression* has been described as follows by its originators:<sup>9</sup>

<sup>8</sup> See Frederick W. Orr and Albert L. Franzke, "The University of Washington Plan of Problem Solving Debate," *Bulletin of the University of Washington* (Extension Series), No. 8, January, 1938.

<sup>9</sup> The following statement has been prepared by, and used with the permission of, Professor Elwood Murray, of the University of Denver, and Professor P. Merville Larson, of the Texas Technological College.

The chief objectives of the revised *Discussion Progression* are as follows: (1) to give students experience and practice in the development of skill in leadership and participation in discussion, (2) at the same time to give an emphasis to training in interpersonal relations, (3) with a special concern for improving the listening effectiveness. This plan is designed to give a broad training in the basic communication abilities.

The plan is designed to help reduce the following problems in present forensics activities: (1) it puts the chief focus of activity upon collaboration and scientific evaluation instead of individual competition, (2) the plan meets the problem of providing audiences in forensic meetings by assigning students to listener and auditor functions which are evaluated, (3) the problem of providing judges is met by giving the students responsibility and training in evaluating each other in relation to the whole group process, (4) the method enables intercollegiate meetings to proceed with two-thirds fewer rooms, (5) the method permits a broader training in communication and human relations than is available in the traditional methods.

#### GENERAL PLAN OF THE PROGRESSION

The plan is an outgrowth of many years of experimentation by students and forensic directors throughout the country in intercollegiate and interscholastic forensics. In some places the progression method has replaced the debate tournament; at other meetings both are used. The plan has much flexibility and may be carried through in a two or three day meeting; it may be spread out through a series of weekly or monthly meetings in a long-range study project, or it may be used as a classroom project which extends over a week or two depending upon the number of "stages" which are used. The plan is also designed to be expanded such as to permit a whole speech or social science class to participate on a wider and more direct basis.

Any number of persons from a dozen to twenty may constitute a unit for operation of the revised plan. These would be divided into three groups of approximately equal size, whose activities would rotate among the three functions: (1) participating, (2) listening, (3) evaluating. The pattern of the participation in every stage except the last would be small group discussion, the group designating its own leader for each session, preferably at the next preceding session. The final stage would be in the form of public speaking (extemporaneous), each person at that time having an opportunity to present his own synthesized solution to the major problem under consideration. The overall pattern would be that suggested in Dewey's "How We Think" sequence of problem, solution, action. In the first two stages and fourth stages, the element of debate will be more evident since the merits of specific solutions will be under consideration. This will, however, not be debate in the formal or traditional style, but more like cross-examination or argumentative dialogue with each person determining his own side by the nature of his belief.

For intercollegiate and interscholastic events limited to two or three days, the possible solutions to be considered should be drawn up in advance, while in class or seminar situations the more flexible arrangement of having the groups work out statements of any number of possible solutions is probably a more desirable procedure. This would result in a variable number of rounds, depending on the problem.

The students constituting the participating group in each round would function in the customary manner. The listening group would furnish the audience situation, an individual on occasion perhaps interrupting to ask a question or add a particularly significant comment which might materially contribute to the progress of the discussion. It should be remembered, however, that this listener participation is purely incidental and should be kept to a minimum. The evaluators are the most important persons in the revised plan. Each one would be supplied with evaluation forms, and each one would be responsible for a given aspect, on which he would concentrate his attention. These are indicated clearly in the evaluation forms. Following the close of the discussion on the subject matter in each round, these evaluators would have a period of fifteen to twenty minutes for oral comments on the activities of the participants. Then each participant would receive a written form from each evaluator. In a forensics meet, it would be desirable to have a carbon copy of each of these given to a faculty evaluator, who in turn would give general evaluation of participants, listeners, and evaluators. This is, however, not absolutely necessary, but it is believed to be highly desirable. For classroom and seminar activities this would be the function of the teacher. In either forensics meet or classroom situation, the carbon copies of all evaluations would furnish the basis for a cumulative record of achievement and progress of each individual.

Standards of achievements are set up throughout the progression with a means of rating carried on the cumulative record card of each speaker entering a progression. Throughout the progression, each student will have the stimulation of other minds working intensely and sincerely on a problem the significance of which constantly increases to him. At each stage the speaker is required to formulate his own particular point of view, to defend it, or to change it, according to his own convictions as the truth is revealed to him. At no point will the student feel himself in competition with others; he will at all times have a constant challenge to a more intelligent and effective achievement. Standards are designated such as to discourage any form of rivalry or exhibitionism. The following is a description of each stage of the progression with the designation of standards of achievement.

**FIRST STAGE.** (*Problem phase*) *Informal discussion on the sub-topic, "What is the problem and to what extent is it significant?"* Each participant should be prepared to evaluate critically the significance of the problem. The outline of his discussion should include, (1) a statement of the facts and evidence showing the nature, scope, and extent of the problem. This should include, (a) a clear-cut statement of the position taken toward the problem by the groups who have the largest "stakes" in it, and (b) an analysis of where these interest-stakes agree and where they disagree. The discussion should, furthermore, include, (2) a projection of the problem into the future and an indication of its effect in the social order, and (3) its effect upon the speaker as a member of that social order.

During the discussion he may criticize the viewpoints of other members of the panel, defend his own viewpoint, or modify it if his convictions have changed. The entire discussion centers on efforts to clarify the problem—its nature, importance, and significance. Points of disagreement, differing evaluations, and uncertainties of terminology are reconciled and clarified. Where a speaker's views coincide with a previous speaker, he should not repeat



what has already been said, but add fresh supporting materials to the views agreed to. After the constructive discussions, at all stages, the chairman should provide some time for questions and brief comments by the audience.

**SECOND STAGE.** (*Problem phase continued*) *Informal discussion on the sub-topic, "What are the most important causes of the problem,"* The procedure is the same as in the first stage. The analysis begun in the first stage is continued to deeper levels. Here the participant traces the causes of the problem as he conceived them to be as the result of his reading, conferences with authorities, and his own particular meditation. He must be able to trace sequences of cause and effect and to reason by analogy and example. His discussion makes the following points: (1) the origin of the problem and the influences which have contributed to it, (2) the factors which all agree must be met in any solution of the problem, and (3) the factors on which there is disagreement. These must be accommodated in any solution of the problem. He evaluates the causes as presented by the other members of his progression. He is concerned with forces and principles which operate in the social order and their relation to the problem discussed. When time requires a shortening of the progression, this stage may be combined with the first stage.

**THIRD STAGE.** (*Solution phase*) *Informal presentation of various possible solutions.* Each member will take five to seven minutes to present, but not argue the adoption of, a solution to the problem. The object of the discussion is to require the student to give evidence that he is informed about the chief alternatives in solution of the problem. He (1) states what he conceives the solutions to be, (2) explains them clearly and lucidly, and (3) rates them in the order of his present preference. Where a preceding speaker has clearly explained a solution which the student intends to support, he should either add fresh materials or merely mention the plan without repeating or rehashing materials already given. After these have all been presented, there may be informal discussion about possible rephrasing or otherwise modifying the solutions for detailed treatment in the next stage. While this stage is particularly valuable for classroom use, it may not be feasible for the forensic meet for obvious reasons. Instead, the third stage should be omitted and the solutions to be considered in the fourth stage formulated and stated in advance to give student participants ample opportunity to prepare for effective discussion.

**FOURTH STAGE.** (*Solution phase continued*) *Informal debates on sub-topic, "What is the best solution to the problem?"* A chief object of the debates is to require the student to commit himself definitely on a practical question as faced by a citizen who must make similar "yes" or "no" decisions in everyday life. Alternatives representative of the chief schools of thought and interests at stake should be worked out in advance as indicated in the preceding stage. For instance, if the question pertains to improvement of state legislatures, the alternatives for debate might be, "Resolved, that educational requirements for the legislature should include the B.A. degree," and "Resolved, that the unicameral form of legislature should be adopted," and "Resolved, that the split session legislature representation should be on the basis of occupation (as in Italy)," and "Resolved, that the initiative and referendum should be adopted," etc. All negative counter plans to any proposition set up should be included as additional propositions at this point.

In each round of this stage, the participant will defend or attack the solutions in terms of his position as determined by careful study and preparation. Since the debate is informal, there is no necessity for an exactly equal number of persons on each side. Likewise, the group may find it desirable to modify or amend the originally stated solution. This procedure eliminates two common objections to formal debate—the so-called ethics of debating on a side in which the debater does not believe, and the unreality which a debate proposition sometimes takes on months after its formal adoption.

Throughout these debates, the speaker will connect the propositions defended or attacked from the standpoint of the causes and interests which must be accommodated if the problem is to be solved and which were arrived at in stage two. In case a speaker finds himself in partial agreement with an opponent, care should be taken at the outset to make explicit the exact points of agreement and disagreement between the two participants. Establishment of burden of proof for a proposition advanced will, in many cases, require the outlining of a plan. As in conventional debate, all questions of constitutionality will be waived. But this should not necessarily be done in the action phase in the next stage.

**FIFTH STAGE.** (*Action phase*) *Formal public (extemporaneous) speaking on sub-topic, "What as citizens, will be our program to put into effect the necessary remedies?"* This is probably the most important stage of the progression and the aspect of learning which in other educational procedures is most frequently neglected. It provides a necessary and valuable follow-up into the life of the student as a citizen.

Each participant will present his ideas on the best solution in a six to eight minute talk. Each participant will include the following in his outline: (1) a summary of the effect upon the speaker's thinking of experience in preparing and presenting the projects in this progression, (2) an explicit statement summarizing what measure or measures the speaker regards should be put into effect to solve the problem according to his present thinking, (3) a statement of what the speaker considers to be the chief obstacles in the acceptance of the program outlined, (4) an outline of proposed procedures to overcome these obstacles, (5) a statement of what special means, if any, the speaker proposes to undertake to make himself competent to do his part as a citizen in solution of this particular problem.

In this revision, it is hoped by the originator and his collaborators that some improvements and refinements have been achieved which will make the progression a more valuable tool, not only in forensic activities, but also in education generally. Extensive participation in such an activity should prepare the student more fully to be an effective citizen in a democratic society.

Advanced students, teachers, and professors who desire to make a profound study of the discussion progression will find its sources in many points in the past centuries, but the contributions of modern scientific philosophies and methods are especially important. Important, especially, are the organismal and integration psychologies, sociologies, and philosophies as propounded by John Dewey, W. H. Kilpatrick, and Fritz Kunkel. The methods from general semantics of Alfred Korzybski and from sociometry, and sociodrama, and group dynamics of J. L. Moreno and Kurt Lewin are valuable in understanding and making the most of the progression plan.

### *Criteria for Evaluation of the Progression*

#### *Productivity of the Group as a Whole*

1. Evaluate the attitude of the group in its receptivity to information presented at different points.
  - a. At what points did the group appear to make the most progress?
  - b. At what points was the learning process in the group least efficient?
  - c. To what extent was the accomplishment of the group as a whole satisfactory? Unsatisfactory?
  - d. To what extent did the entire group make any advance according to your observations?
2. General evaluation: inferior, fair, good, excellent, superior.

#### *Details and Mechanics of Speaking*

1. Indicate superior, as well as less acceptable, usages which were observed at any time during the session:
  - a. In enunciation, articulation, pronunciation.
  - b. In effectiveness of diction (use of words, phrases, vocabulary).
  - c. In accuracy and propriety of grammatical usage.
  - d. In suitability and effectiveness of bodily action.
  - e. In directness of contact with participants in terms of eye-contact, choice of ideas, choice of language.
  - f. In suitability and effectiveness of voice.
2. General evaluation: inferior, fair, good, excellent, superior.

#### *Interactions Within the Group*

1. To what extent, if any, did you observe progress toward an improved friendliness and warmth of each participant within the group?
2. Comment on his apparent listening effectiveness within the group.
3. To what extent were his questions and comments sufficient and appropriate?
4. To what extent and in what cases did this participant interfere with the morale, efficiency, and productivity of the group? (Examples: "the aggressor," "the playboy," "the recognition-seeker," "the self-confessor," "the special-interest pleader," "the dominator," the under-verbalized or the over-verbalized.)
5. How well did each participant adjust to emergencies such as emotional clashes, *faux pas*, or unexpected developments of various kinds?
6. Was each participant free from dogmatism and absolutism, and consistent in maintaining a scientific attitude?
7. General evaluation: inferior, fair, good, excellent, superior.

#### *Organization and Material*

1. Comment on the organization as revealed in the outlines. Was the organization adequate? (Did the organization follow the plan of the particular stage as given in the foregoing explanation of the progression method?)
2. Comment on supporting materials which were used. Were they adequate and appropriate?
3. To what degree did the outlines and the contributions indicate freedom from dogmatic and categorical evaluations and recognition of relative values, tendencies, and trends in the problem under consideration?
4. Comment on clarity, style, and other matters of communication effectiveness in composition as revealed in the outlines.
5. Comment on the clarity, style, and organization of ideas as revealed in the contributions to the discussion.
6. General evaluation: inferior, fair, good, excellent, superior.

### *Adaptability of the Progression*

The Student Congress or Student Legislative Assembly is a type of forensic activity which is designed to provide opportunities for participation in discussion and debate in somewhat the same form as that present in legislative bodies in the several states and in the Federal government. Provision is made for the *discussion* of problems in committee sessions, for further *discussion* in joint conference committee sessions, and for *debate* on motions in the legislative assembly under the conditions of parliamentary procedure.

Extensive applications of this type of activity have been made to both high-school and college forensic programs, and the number of legislative assemblies or congresses is growing each year. These may vary in form and scope from half-day sessions on one problem to three-day sessions on as many as three problems or topics. The high schools in the vicinity of Gary, Indiana, recently held a one-day student legislative assembly, in which there were three sets of commissions, or discussion groups, considering three quite different problems, where one legislative body received and debated the bill and made motions, or resolutions which were the result of the deliberations of each of the three commissions. Likewise, Grinnell College conducted its third annual Discussion-Debate Conference, in which there were a number of co-ordinate discussion groups that considered the same problem and ultimately a legislative assembly, in which there was debate upon the the relative merits of the motions received from these committees.

#### *A One-Day Student Congress*

A plan for a one-day Student Congress has been set forth as follows:<sup>10</sup>

Student congresses and legislative assemblies are not new. The national honorary forensic fraternities have been particularly active in sponsoring regional and state gatherings of this sort for several years. Almost without exception, however, these have been spread over two or three days. When, therefore, it was proposed at the 1942 annual business meeting of the Michigan Intercollegiate Speech League that the member colleges try a student assembly to be completed in one day, those who had had experience with other assemblies expressed doubt as to its feasibility. Nevertheless, because of the need for wartime economy, it was voted to take just one day.

The decision to hold the congress represented a curtailment of the Michigan Intercollegiate Speech League's normal fall activities, for it was an experimental wartime substitute for the usual extempore speaking contests for men and women and also the annual panel-discussion meet. It was successfully argued that thus the member colleges could save travel, use a large num-

<sup>10</sup>See Carroll P. Lahman, "A One-Day Student Legislative Assembly," *The Gavel*, January, 1943, pp. 33-34, 36.

ber of students, and perhaps more realistically motivate preparation and participation. Most of the colleges had not previously participated in a student legislative assembly.

When this first state-wide intercollegiate student legislative assembly convened at Lansing, it met under auspicious circumstances. Over one hundred student delegates were present, representing eight colleges. There was a distinctly legislative atmosphere, for the assembly met in the chambers of the Michigan House of Representatives in the state capitol. Not only was the imposing assembly hall with its public address system placed at our disposal; but also the House post office lobby was used for registration, the House committee rooms were used for our committee meetings, and the official mimeograph and typewriters were made available for the preparation of committee reports. The Michigan Student Legislative Assembly was not the first to meet in a state capitol building, but those in attendance can testify that such a meeting place adds greatly to the success of such a student gathering. Another feature that contributed to the success of the day was the fact that all students and faculty members ate together, both at noon and at night, in one of the downtown churches adjacent to the capitol grounds. Such an arrangement was not only almost imperative to save time, but it also added to the fun and friendliness of the occasion.

The two questions considered were chosen from a list of six originally passed on to the faculty committee on arrangements. These two final questions involved state, national, and international issues: (1) Interstate Trade Barriers, and (2) United States Mediation Between Great Britain and India.

The actual operation of the assembly was modeled rather closely on the the Biennial Delta Sigma Rho Congress. In fact, several sections of the rules for that gathering were incorporated bodily, with minor adaptations, in the prospectus sent out for the Michigan assembly. As three members of the faculty committee had had experience with Tau Kappa Alpha student assemblies, some helpful suggestions came from that source also.

#### *Organizing the Program for the Day*

Perhaps the calendar for the day will show most clearly how the limited time was divided:

9:30 A.M.	Registration
10:00 A.M.	Faculty Conference
10:30 A.M.	Opening Assembly (to elect students as Speaker and Clerk)
12:00 Noon	Luncheon
1:00 P.M.	Main Committee Meetings
2:30 P.M.	Joint Conference Committee Meetings
4:00 P.M.	General Assembly (to act on bills reported from Joint Conference Committees)
7:15 P.M.	Dinner

For most of the faculty members in attendance it was a much less strenuous day than they usually spend at intercollegiate speech meets. Although they were permitted to confer with students in committee meetings and on the assembly floor, they had no voice or vote. The faculty director called the opening assembly to order and conducted the election of a student Speaker, after which he acted only in an advisory capacity. There was also a faculty Parliamentarian, to whom the Speaker at times referred.

Each college was limited to eleven delegates on the floor at any one time. Inasmuch, however, as each institution had been urged to have approximately equal representation on each of the two questions, there were some delegations large enough so that each student worked on only one question. In smaller delegations, the members worked on one question in committee and on both questions in the general assembly.

#### *Dividing the Work*

One method of conserving time was to have students nominated by their respective faculty directors in advance. From this list, the assembly faculty director designated chairmen and secretaries of main committees in advance, as well as timekeepers and members of the general resolutions committee. Thus it was possible for these students to know something of their responsibilities ahead of time, and it was also possible to allocate offices so that all colleges were quite evenly recognized. Joint conference committees chose their own officers. The Speaker and the Clerk of the assembly were nominated from the floor, but only such names could be presented as had been approved in advance to the faculty director of the assembly.

There were three main committees on each of the two questions. So far as delegations were large enough to permit such an arrangement, every college was represented on every committee. To these committees were referred the bills that had been prepared in advance by the various institutions, mimeographed copies of which were filed with the temporary clerk at the time of registration. Each college was limited to two bills on each question. All advance bills were sorted by the temporary clerk and members of the faculty committee on arrangements and divided as equitably as possible among the several committees. This work was done during the noon hour so that, when the delegates returned from lunch, they found to which main committee a given bill had been referred. At registration time, they had been furnished with a list of delegates as assigned to the various committees. It was now possible to make shifts in the assignment within a given delegation if thereby a certain delegate could attend a committee meeting where a bill in which he was specially interested was to be considered. By this arrangement, committees were set up in advance and yet it was still possible for desirable last-minute changes to be made by notifying the Clerk of the assembly and the chairman of the committee.

Each main committee formulated a bill, using the bills referred to it as the basis for its deliberations. At the expiration of its session, it chose, by formal or informal election, four of its members to act on the joint conference committee. Thus the joint conference committee on Interstate Trade Barriers was made up of twelve members, as was the joint conference committee on Indian Mediation.

As there was a split in each joint conference committee, the general assembly was confronted with a majority and a minority bill on each of the two questions. Mimeographed copies of each were in the hands of all delegates within a few minutes after the conference committees adjourned and in time for the opening of the four o'clock general assembly.

Equal time was allotted to each of the two questions for floor debate. After much parliamentary skirmishing and considerable serious debate, the minority bill on Interstate Trade Barriers looking to state action by regions

was decisively defeated, and the majority bill increasing the powers of the Interstate Commerce Commission was adopted. When it came to the question of India, the minority bill aimed at Indian independence lost by a fairly close vote. The majority bill, which its opponents claimed was too timid and too mild, met a similar fate, with the result that no action was taken on this hotly debated question.

### *Conclusions Tentatively Drawn*

On the basis of one year's experience with the Michigan Student Legislative Assembly, certain conclusions can be drawn at least tentatively: (1) It is possible to hold a profitable and successful student congress in one day, providing careful planning is done in advance. (2) Such speech activity is enjoyed by both students and faculty, gives valuable training in both the conference or discussion type of speaking (in committee) and in more formal public speaking of a definitely persuasive sort (on the assembly floor). Students need increased clarification in advance of the differences involved in these situations. Particularly do they need to come into committee sessions with open minds, anxious to help devise the best possible bill in the time at their disposal, not to do what they can to get a particular advance bill adopted *in toto* or in part to increase the prestige of an individual or a college. A good committee bill is not necessarily a melange of all the advance bills referred to that committee. Some of our bills suffered in this regard, with consequent loss in logic and coherence. (3) The experience gained in parliamentary usage is not only extremely valuable but also it is enhanced by advance study and practice and by the avoidance of being over-technical for the sake of airing one's knowledge or of tripping up the presiding officer. (4) The controlling consideration in the election of officers, particularly Speaker and Clerk, should be the ability to discharge the duties of the respective offices rather than political availability.

One advantage of the one-day congress is the concentration on issues, without the opportunity for hotel corridor log-rolling for this candidate or that, but the formation of political blocs was not entirely absent from our session. Experience in practical politics is desirable, but is it too much to expect college students to set a higher standard than we are wont to ascribe to actual politicians? If it is, perhaps the college would do well to avoid hurling "the contumelious stone." Of course a college with a candidate for Speaker should do all it legitimately can to elect its candidate, but let it be on the basis of his merit as a master of parliamentary law and a good presiding officer. Another year we may use the method of giving each nominee for Speaker not only the opportunity for brief remarks but also a few minutes of trial presiding before the final ballot is taken.

### THE DELTA SIGMA RHO NATIONAL STUDENT CONGRESS

Perhaps one of the most highly developed and educationally sound examples of the Student Congress plan of forensic activity is the Biennial National Student Congress of Delta Sigma Rho, the national honorary forensic society. Conceived in 1936, this Congress was first held in 1939, and subsequently in 1941, 1947, 1949, and 1951. Even though it has been designed as an intercollegiate activity and represents a



three-day program, it is so well grounded in the best of educational principles and procedures—and in its present form represents the product of serious experimentation and testing—that it has seemed advisable to reproduce in detail the rules governing its operation.

At the outset, several observations concerning this Congress should be made: (1) it makes no attempt merely to "mock" a political legislative assembly; rather, it attempts to provide a series of worthwhile forensic experiences; (2) it is built upon a set of principles that are educationally defensible; (3) it provides for experiences in committee sessions (*inquiry*), in joint conference committee sessions (in part *inquiry* and in part *advocacy*), and in legislative debate (*advocacy*); (4) it provides for a Committee on Legislative Procedure and Evaluation, a feature which gives additional stature in terms of educational values in that it makes constant appraisal of the forensic activity an integral part of the organization; (5) while it is designed as a three-day Congress, it can be modified to meet the needs of those groups which may wish a shorter program; (6) it can be expanded or contracted in terms of the number of committees to accommodate virtually any number of participants.

#### *The Rules as Revised by the 1950-51 Faculty Committee on Arrangements*

##### *Purpose*

The purpose of the Congress is to broaden and make more realistic training of intercollegiate speakers; to provide a unique method for training students in the skills of fact-finding, organization, group discussion, bill-drafting, parliamentary debate; in short, to help young men and women become wiser and more active citizens. The rules of procedure to be used by the Congress provide for preliminary caucuses, a series of committee meetings, and a unicameral legislative session. These rules are not designed to ape existing governmental agencies but they strive rather to make an original contribution to a basic problem of democracy; namely, the development of techniques by which a number of individuals can discuss a common problem and arrive at a solution reflecting the best of which that group is capable.

##### *I. Name*

1. The name of this organization shall be "The National Student Congress of Delta Sigma Rho."

##### *II. Dates of Meetings*

1. The business of this organization shall occupy three consecutive days.
2. Members of this organization shall convene biennially.
3. The exact dates for each meeting shall be fixed as hereinafter provided but shall usually fall on a Thursday, Friday, and Saturday of April.

##### *III. Powers and Duties of Faculty Sponsors*

1. This organization shall be sponsored by the National Society of Delta Sigma Rho.

2. At least twelve months prior to each meeting of The Student Congress, the National President of Delta Sigma Rho shall appoint a committee of not less than five faculty or alumni representatives. This committee shall be known as The Faculty Committee on Arrangements.
3. The Faculty Committee on Arrangements shall have the following powers and duties:
  - a. To revise these rules, if they deem such revision necessary.
  - b. To fix the exact dates for the Student Congress.
  - c. To determine the place at which the Student Congress shall meet.
  - d. To decide upon and phrase the public problem(s) which shall be studied and acted upon by the delegates of the Student Congress as hereinafter provided; and to notify all schools of these topics at least two months prior to the meeting.
  - e. To receive from all Faculty Sponsors, at least thirty days before the opening of the Student Congress the names of all students to be nominated for Speaker of the Assembly, and Chairman *pro tem* or Clerk *pro tem* of the preliminary party caucuses.
  - f. To appoint one or more Faculty Sponsors to serve as Parliamentarians during the Student Congress with advisory powers hereinafter specified.
  - g. To discharge all other duties hereinafter specified.

#### IV. General Structure

1. The official business sessions of the Student Congress shall be known by the following names:
  - a. Preliminary Caucuses
  - b. The Opening Assemblies
  - c. Main Committee Meetings
  - d. Joint Conference Committee Meetings
  - e. General Assemblies
2. In addition to the above sessions there shall be a Registration Period, an Official Banquet, and a Delta Sigma Rho Business Meeting.
3. The order and number of events, together with exact times and places, shall be determined by the Faculty Committee on Arrangements.

#### V. Registration

1. The Faculty Committee on Arrangements shall call for an advance registration, to be made not later than thirty days before the opening of the Congress. The advance registration shall include names of all student delegates, their party affiliation as provided in Article VI, Section 1; candidacy for Chairman *pro tem* or Clerk *pro tem* of their party Preliminary Caucus as provided in Article VI, Section 3; or candidacy for Speaker of the Assembly or Clerk of the Assembly as provided in Article III, Section 3-e; and subtopic preference for committee membership as provided in Article VIII, Section 1.
2. All delegates, alternates, and faculty sponsors shall sign the official Roll Book during the Final Registration at the Congress.

#### VI. Preliminary Caucuses

1. At the time of advance registration for the Congress, each delegate shall register as a member of one of the following parties:
  - a. Republican
  - b. Democrat
2. At the time designated in the Calendar, each of the parties shall hold Preliminary Caucuses for the purpose of selecting party candidates for Speaker and Clerk of the Assembly, respectively.

3. The Preliminary Caucuses shall be convened by a Chairman *pro tem* who shall preside over the caucus until the candidate for Speaker of the Assembly has been selected. The roll-call vote of the individual delegates shall be recorded by a Clerk *pro tem*. These officers shall be appointed by the Faculty Committee on Arrangements.
  - a. Delegates wishing to be considered for *pro tem* offices shall so indicate at the time of advance registration and submit a statement of their qualifications.
  - b. The Chairman *pro tem* shall be selected from schools not nominating candidates for the Speaker or Clerk of the Assembly.
4. The Preliminary Caucuses shall proceed in accordance with the following rules:
  - a. No student may be nominated whose name has not been submitted in advance by the Faculty Sponsor of his school to the Faculty Committee on Arrangements, as provided for in Article III, Section 3-e, above, except that in a party caucus where the number of such properly certified candidates for an office is less than four, nominations for such office may be made from the floor, but in no case shall there be more than a total of four candidates for any one office. Candidates nominated from the floor shall be from schools not nominating candidates for the Speaker or Clerk of the Assembly.
  - b. Delegates placing names in nomination shall be allowed not more than five minutes to describe the qualifications of candidates.
  - c. Nominations may be seconded, but seconding speeches may not be given.
  - d. When all nominations for Speaker of the Assembly have been heard, each candidate shall have five minutes in which to state his views on the public problem(s) to be considered by the Congress.
  - e. When all candidates have spoken, the vote shall be by roll call of the individual delegates.
  - f. If no candidate receives a majority on the first vote, the two receiving the greatest number of votes shall be voted upon again in a second roll call.
  - g. The Clerk *pro tem* shall act as time-keeper for the above speeches and shall conduct the roll-call vote.
5. When the candidate for Speaker has been selected, he shall immediately assume the chair as presiding officer of the caucus. The same procedure shall be followed in the selection of the candidate for Clerk, except that there shall be no campaign speeches by the nominees.

#### VII. Opening Assembly

1. The Opening Assembly shall be called to order by the Temporary Chairman, who shall be a faculty member appointed by the Faculty Committee on Arrangements.
2. The Temporary Clerk, who shall be a faculty member appointed by the Faculty Committee shall call the opening roll.
3. The Temporary Chairman shall preside during the election of the Speaker of the Student Congress. This election shall proceed in accordance with the following rules:
  - a. Delegates nominating the candidates of the respective parties for Speaker of the Assembly shall be allowed not more than three minutes to describe the qualifications of their candidates.
  - b. After the two nominating speeches for Speaker of the Assembly have been made, the two candidates shall be allowed two minutes each in which to state their views to the Opening Assembly on the public problem(s) to be considered by the Congress.

- c. When all candidates have spoken, the vote shall be by roll call of schools. Each delegate is free to vote as an individual, but for each school a delegation leader shall respond to the roll call and report his delegation's votes.
- d. If no candidate receives a majority on the first vote, the two receiving the greatest number of votes shall be voted upon again in a second roll call.
- e. The Temporary Clerk shall act as timekeeper for the above speeches and shall conduct the roll-call vote(s) to determine the winning candidate.
4. The newly elected Speaker shall preside during the election of the Clerk of the Student Congress. The rules for this election shall be the same as those for electing the Speaker, except that nominating speeches shall be limited to two minutes and that the candidates shall not speak.
5. A member of the Faculty Committee on Arrangements shall announce the assignment of delegates to their proper committees as hereinafter provided in Articles VIII and XI.
6. The only other business which shall be in order at the Opening Assembly shall be the hearing of messages, communications, and announcements, a list of which shall have been prepared by the Faculty Committee on Arrangements.

#### *VIII. Main Committee Meetings*

1. At the time of advance registration for the Congress, the delegate may indicate preference on subtopics for committee membership. Delegates without preference shall so indicate.
2. The Faculty Committee on Arrangements shall divide the delegates into as many main committees as may seem appropriate to the number of delegates registered in the Congress.
  - a. In determining the number of main committees on each subtopic, the Faculty Committee will give consideration to the number of expressed preferences; and the number and nature of bills submitted.
  - b. Delegates not stating preferences shall be placed where needed to help equalize the size of the committees.
  - c. In assigning delegates to the main committees on each subtopic, the Faculty Committee will follow the principle of proportional distribution according to advance party registrations.
  - d. No more than one delegate from the same school will be assigned to the same committee.
  - e. In order to provide a workable distribution of membership on the several committees, the Faculty Committee on Arrangements shall have full and final authority to select delegates by lot to be placed wherever necessary.
3. Each committee shall be called to order by a temporary Chairman, appointed by the Faculty Committee on Arrangements.
4. The temporary Chairman shall preside during the election of the student Chairman and student Secretary for the committee. He shall also assume the duties of temporary Secretary during this time.
5. It shall be the fundamental purpose of each committee to discuss those problems which fall within the limits of the subtopic to which the committee has been assigned, together with proposed or possible legislative solutions. Then, in the light of such discussion, the committee shall try to agree upon and frame a majority bill which should express a true consensus.

6. As the construction of a suitable bill is to be the basis of the work of the committees, the order of business shall be: first, the consideration of the purpose, intent, and scope of the bill; then, the consideration of motions relating to the proposed contents or some portion thereof. Such motions shall be discussed and acted upon in the order in which they are made.
7. Action upon any advance bill, or portion thereof, or upon any motion which proposes a new bill, or portion thereof, shall consist in either the rejection of the item, or the acceptance of it with or without amendment, or the substitution of some item in its place.
8. As soon as the essential content of a majority bill has been decided upon, which must be not later than thirty minutes prior to adjournment of the last meeting of the committee, the Chairman shall conduct the election of three members whose duty shall be to give the majority bill its final form and phrasing, and to represent the main committee at meetings of the Joint Conference Committee. At least one of the three shall be other than a member of the majority party of the Assembly.
9. Business is transacted in the committee with less formality than in the Assembly, the members being permitted to speak as often as they please, subject to recognition by the Chairman, and to such limitations as may be decided by the committee itself. Resort to parliamentary methods and to voting shall be as infrequent as possible. The ideal techniques should be those of co-operative discussion, rather than competitive debate.

#### *IX. Joint Conference Committees*

1. At the time designated in the Calendar, the Joint Conference Committee(s) shall convene. The number of such joint conference committees shall be determined by the Faculty Committee on Rules and Program, taking into account (a) the number and nature of the public problems considered by the Congress and (b) the number of delegates working in main committees which the Faculty Committee on Rules and Program designates as constituting an appropriate unit. The election of these committee members shall be as provided in Article VIII, Section 8.
2. Each committee shall be called to order by a temporary Chairman, appointed by the Faculty Committee on Arrangements.
3. The temporary Chairman shall preside during the election of the student Chairman and student Secretary of the committee. He shall also assume the duties of temporary Secretary during this time.
4. The Secretary shall immediately read the various majority bills as submitted by delegates representing the main committees. After the majority bills have been read, the Chairman shall preside over the deliberations to determine whether one of the bills shall be used as the basis for committee action or whether the committee shall construct a new bill using the majority bills as a basis.
5. If, in the deliberations, it becomes apparent that there is a fundamental cleavage in opinion, the minority may withdraw. If withdrawal occurs, the minority delegates shall meet separately in another room where they shall organize in accordance with Sections 2 and 3 immediately above, and they shall be known as the Joint Conference Committee of Minorities. Also, if withdrawal occurs, the remaining delegates shall be known as the Joint Conference Committee of the Majority.
6. It shall be the duty of the Joint Conference Committee of Minorities to fuse the several dissenting views into a minority bill, and to elect a minority leader.

7. Any delegate, whether or not he be a member of a joint conference committee, who dissents from any portion of the majority bill and whose views are not satisfactorily expressed by a minority bill, may draw an amendment to be proposed from the floor of the General Assembly.

#### X. General Assemblies

1. The Speaker shall call the meetings to order; the Clerk shall call the roll, read the minutes of the preceding Assembly, and all communications or announcements submitted by the Steering Committee or the Faculty Committee on Arrangements.
2. The Speaker shall announce the order in which the committees shall report; and shall make any further necessary announcements regarding the division of time for debate or clarification of rules.
3. Each committee shall report its bills and amendments in the following manner:
  - a. The majority bill shall be read by a member of the majority, who shall move its adoption, and who shall immediately give a copy of the bill to the Clerk, and distribute copies to the Assembly.
  - b. The majority Leader, or delegates appointed by him, shall be allowed a total of not more than ten minutes in which to explain and defend the bill.
  - c. The minority bill shall be read by a member of the minority, who shall move its substitution in place of the majority bill, and who shall immediately give a copy of the bill to the Clerk, and distribute copies to the Assembly.
  - d. The minority Leader, or delegates appointed by him, shall be allowed a total of not more than ten minutes in which to explain and defend the bill.
  - e. Any delegate desiring to amend either the majority or the minority bills shall present a written copy of his amendment to the Clerk not later than at the close of the time, allowed the minority Leader. At the conclusion of this speech, the Speaker shall ask if there are any proposed amendments not on the Clerk's desk. After this time no more amendments shall be received.
  - f. Each joint conference committee shall choose a representative to assist the Steering Committee in screening proposed amendments that have been properly submitted and impartially consolidate such amendments as may be considered identical.
  - g. The Speaker shall announce the time fixed by the Steering Committee for debate on the motion to substitute the minority bill for the majority bill. He shall make this announcement before either bill has been presented to the Assembly. At the expiration of such time, the vote must be taken, and it shall be on the motion to substitute.
  - h. If the minority bill is adopted as a substitute for the majority bill, the majority bill shall be dropped from further consideration by the Assembly. Then the minority bill shall become the bill before the house for debate, amendment, and adoption.
  - i. Having completed its work of screening the amendments, and taking into account the number to be considered by the Assembly, the Steering Committee shall determine and the Speaker shall announce the time to be allotted to each amendment, including amendments to that particular amendment. When such allotted time has expired, the vote must be taken.
  - j. Delegates who have submitted amendments to the minority bill may then be heard in the order in which they have submitted their amend-

ments to the Clerk. If any amendments have been consolidated by the screening process, the Steering Committee shall determine the order in which such consolidated amendments shall be heard.

- k. A maximum of three minutes shall be allowed each proposer of an amendment in which to read, explain, and defend his proposal.
- l. Other delegates wishing to debate the amendment shall be allowed two minutes each, and the Speaker shall recognize favoring and opposing delegates in alternation in so far as possible.
- m. Amendments to amendments may be presented from the floor without the necessity of early presentation in written form to the Clerk, but amendments to the third degree shall be out of order.
- n. If the minority bill is not adopted as a substitute for the majority bill, amendments to the majority bill shall be heard and acted upon in the same fashion as provided for handling the minority bill above.
- o. Throughout the debate upon any given bill and its amendments, the Speaker shall not recognize any delegate who has previously spoken unless no other delegate is requesting the floor.
- p. The Speaker, or a delegate appointed by him, shall time the delegates during all debate. No delegate may exceed his time without two-thirds consent of the Assembly.
- q. The Speaker may ask the advice of the Parliamentarian, as provided for in Article III, Section 3-f, but the Parliamentarian shall act in an advisory capacity only.
- r. After all discussion has been heard, or the time limits reached, or the previous question moved and passed, the bill before the house for adoption shall be voted upon by roll call as provided in Article XIII. It may be approved with or without amendment, or be rejected. If rejected, no new bill may be offered to the Assembly, but the Speaker may entertain a resolution stating that the Assembly is unable to recommend action upon the problem at issue.

#### *XI. Committee on Legislative Procedure and Evaluation*

1. There shall be a Committee on Legislative Procedure composed of not more than fifteen members of whom ten may be students and five may be faculty members.
2. The function of this committee shall be to evaluate the procedure, work, and effectiveness of the Congress, and to make recommendations for the improvement of future Congresses to the Faculty Committee on Arrangements.
  - a. This committee shall have the authority, if it wishes, to conduct an attitude analysis of the delegates, or engage in any other research relevant to an evaluation of the Congress.
  - b. This committee shall also have the right to invite regular delegates, faculty sponsors, guests, and such persons as are available to appear before it to testify concerning the matters being considered by the committee. Such invitations must be made in writing by the chairman of the committee upon the direction of the committee and shall be delivered to the witness a reasonable time in advance of his requested appearance. No invitation is to be considered as a summons upon a person and may be rejected by him at the time of its receipt.
3. This committee shall be in continuous session during the entire Congress except for such recesses as are necessary for purposes of study, report, and schedule. The final meeting of this Committee is provided on the calendar of the Congress at the close of business on the final



- day. At this time the committee shall frame and transmit its final report to the Committee on Arrangements.
4. This committee shall be named by the Faculty Committee on Rules and Program. At the time of advance registration, schools desiring to be represented on this committee may nominate one student delegate for membership. Selection to membership on this committee shall be made in the order of receipt of registration. Upon the registration of the allotted number of members, all subsequent registrees for this committee will be notified that the committee is closed. Faculty representatives to this committee shall be named by the Faculty Committee on Arrangements.
  5. Members of this committee shall not participate in any other assemblies, committees, or caucuses of the general Congress. They may, however, observe and attend these meetings as the study of the committee requires.
  6. A student delegate serving on this committee shall not be counted as one of the four participating delegates to which his school is entitled.
  7. The committee shall be convened at the time scheduled for the Preliminary Caucuses by a temporary chairman appointed by the Faculty Committee on Arrangements. At that time a chairman and secretary shall be elected.
  8. The committee shall have the right to organize and appoint such subcommittees as are necessary to carry on its work most efficiently.

#### XII. Membership

1. Any college or university included on the chapter roll of the National Society of Delta Sigma Rho is entitled to send delegates to participate in the Student Congress.
2. Student delegates must be *bona fide* undergraduate students of the schools they represent. They need not be members of Delta Sigma Rho in order to participate in the Student Congress meeting but must be members in order to participate in the Delta Sigma Rho business meeting.
3. Each chapter shall be entitled to a maximum of four participating student delegates at any one time, except as provided in Article XI, Section 6. Not more than two student delegates from any one school shall be assigned to the same subtopic of the public problem(s) under consideration.
4. Any institution may send as many students as it wishes, to be designated as alternates or observers, but in that capacity they may not participate in any of the business of a committee or General Assembly.
5. The participating delegates, representing a given institution during the various committee meetings, need not be the same students for meetings of the Assembly. When a participating delegate and an alternate thus exchange status, it shall usually be at the discretion of the Faculty Sponsor of the institution involved.
6. At the Delta Sigma Rho business meeting each chapter may be represented by one participating member. This representative shall usually be the Faculty Sponsor of the chapter if he be present. If the Faculty Sponsor or other faculty representative cannot be present, the chapter should send a student member of Delta Sigma Rho as its representative. Any student so instructed shall not be eligible to election to any of the Joint Conference Committees.
7. Questions regarding the right of any person to represent a given institution or participate in any business session, shall be referred to the President of Delta Sigma Rho for settlement.

XIII. *Bills, Amendments, Resolutions*

1. Advance bills may be prepared by delegates before the Congress convenes to be submitted to the appropriate committees at the time they convene as tentative proposals for the committee to consider.
2. All advance bills must be presented in the proper form as follows:
  - a. They must be typewritten or mimeographed upon one sheet of standard size paper.
  - b. The first line shall consist of these words: "Congress Bill Number \_\_\_\_\_."
  - c. The second line shall give the name of the student introducing the bill together with the school he represents.
  - d. Commencing on the third line, the title of the bill must be stated, beginning with the words, "An Act," and continuing with a statement of the purpose of the bill.
  - e. The text of the bill proper must begin with the words, "Be it enacted by the Student Congress of Delta Sigma Rho." The material following must begin with the word "That."
  - f. Every section shall be numbered commencing at one. No figures should be used in the bill except for the numbers of the sections. No abbreviations should be used.
  - g. The following is an illustration of the form proper in drafting bills:

Congress Bill Number \_\_\_\_\_  
by Mr. Doe of the University of \_\_\_\_\_

AN ACT to provide the methods for settling industrial disputes.  
Be it enacted by the Student Congress of Delta Sigma Rho,  
Section 1. That the \_\_\_\_\_  
Section 2. That also \_\_\_\_\_

3. Bills prepared by each committee for recommendation to the joint committee and by the joint committee for recommendation to the General Assembly shall follow the same form as that prescribed for advance bills with the following exceptions:
  - a. They shall not be limited as to length.
  - b. They may omit the requirements for the first and second lines as described in Article 2, parts b and c above.
4. The proper form for amendments shall be one of the following:
 

"I move to amend by striking out the words \_\_\_\_\_"  
"\_\_\_\_\_ " or  
"I move to amend by substituting the words \_\_\_\_\_"  
"\_\_\_\_\_ " or  
"I move to amend by adding the words \_\_\_\_\_"  
"\_\_\_\_\_ " or  
"I move to amend by inserting the words \_\_\_\_\_"  
"\_\_\_\_\_ " or  
"I move to amend by dividing the \_\_\_\_\_"  
"\_\_\_\_\_ " or
5. Bills passed by the General Assembly shall be signed by the Speaker and Clerk, and three copies delivered to the chairman of the Faculty Committee on Arrangements, who shall have copies sent out to the President of the United States and to the Chairmen of appropriate committees of the United States Congress.
6. In the event the General Assembly fails to pass any bill properly brought before it, no new bill may be offered to the Assembly. If the Assembly wishes to express itself with regard to matters other than those relating to the official Committee problems but within its proper

range of action, the Assembly may consider motions in the form of resolutions.

#### XIV. *Voting*

1. In the assemblies, the committees, and the caucuses, each individual delegate is entitled to one vote. He is free to vote as he chooses without regard to how any other delegate or delegates cast their ballots.
2. Roll-call votes should be used only in electing officers or in taking final action upon whole bills. In the Assemblies, all roll calls will be by chapters, and one delegate from each school should respond and report the votes of his delegation.
3. In all meetings of the Congress no delegate shall be privileged to change his vote after the vote has been declared by the presiding officer. Any such change of vote shall be reported from the floor by the delegate making the change.
4. In the event official responsibilities require that a delegate be absent for a portion of a meeting, he may vote by proxy by submitting his vote to the Clerk or Secretary in written form, but only in the case of specific motions pending at the time of the delegate's departure. Such proxies shall be void if the motion to which they apply shall be changed in any manner.
5. In the assemblies, committees, and caucuses, participating delegates shall be seated together in an area from which all others are excluded. Guests and observers shall be seated in an area clearly separated from that of the participating delegates. This makes possible more efficient conduct of business and accurate determination of votes.

#### XV. *Powers and Duties of Officers*

1. The Speaker of the Assembly shall call the meeting to order; he shall preserve order and decorum; he shall name the one entitled to the floor; he shall decide all questions of order, subject to appeal to the Assembly; he shall not be required to vote in ordinary legislative proceedings, except where his vote would be decisive; he shall put questions; he shall certify to all bills passed by the Assembly.
2. The chairman of a committee shall call the meetings to order; he shall preserve order and decorum; he shall name the one entitled to the floor; he shall decide all questions of order, subject to appeal to the Committee; he shall not be required to vote, except where his vote would be decisive; he shall put questions; and he shall conduct the election of the members to the Joint Conference Committee.
3. The Clerk of the Assembly shall have the care and custody of all papers and records; he shall serve as Clerk of the Steering Committee; he shall arrange in its proper order, as determined by the Steering Committee, from day to day, all the business of the Assembly; he shall keep the journal of the Assembly; he shall conduct voting by roll call, and tabulate and announce the results; he shall receive and list in order of receipt, amendments to bills; he shall certify to all bills passed by the Assembly, and shall deliver three copies of all such bills, together with copies of the minutes, to the Faculty Committee on Arrangements.
4. The Secretary of a Committee shall have the care and custody of all papers and records; he shall conduct all roll-call votes, and tabulate and announce the results; he shall keep the minutes of the sessions of the committee, and shall send a copy of those minutes to the Faculty

Committee on Arrangements as soon as possible after the final adjournment of the Congress.

#### XVI. Steering Committee

1. There shall be a Steering Committee composed of the Speaker of the Assembly, Clerk of the Assembly, Majority Leader(s) of the Joint Conference Majority Committee(s), Minority Leader(s) of the Joint Conference Minority Committee(s), (if any), a member of the Faculty Committee on Arrangements, and a faculty Parliamentarian who shall be chairman of the Committee. This committee shall:
  - a. Determine the agenda for meetings of the General Assembly. The Steering Committee shall have the power to limit the agenda, selecting from the bills reported from the joint conference committees, so that thorough debate on the measure(s) may occur.
  - b. Receive and approve for placement on the agenda any resolutions, memorials, communications, or similar matters which individual delegates or Congress Committees wish to bring before the Assembly.
  - c. Designate the order in which the committees shall report to the Assembly.
  - d. Fix the total time allowed for debate on each committee's bill and amendments, subject to appeal to the Assembly. (See Article X).
  - e. Formulate and present to the Assembly any resolutions, memorials or similar matters which it feels should properly come before that body.
  - f. Meet with the Editor of the *Gavel* subsequent to the adjournment of the Congress for the purpose of edition and transmitting any bills and resolutions adopted by the Congress in accordance with Article XIII, Sections 5 and 6 to the chairman of the Faculty Committee on Arrangements and through him to the President of the United States, the chairmen of appropriate committees in the United States Congress, the editor of the *Gavel* and any other individuals or groups specified by the rules of the Congress or action of the Assembly.
  - g. Have primary responsibility for recommending any action which the committee believes will expedite the work of the Assembly.
  - h. All decisions of the Steering Committee regarding the agenda and time limits on debate shall be published and distributed previous to the legislative session.
2. All committee action shall be subject to appeal to the Assembly.

#### XVII. Miscellaneous

1. In the Assembly, the unqualified motion to adjourn is a main motion because its effect would be to dissolve the Congress *sine die*.
2. In cases not covered by these rules, the presiding officer shall follow H. M. Robert, *Rules of Order* (Rev.), Scott Foresman and Company, N. Y., 1951.

#### Calendar

##### Fifth National Student Congress of Delta Sigma Rho

Thursday, April 12

10:00 A.M.	Faculty Committee on Arrangements
2:00 P.M.	Faculty Committee on Arrangements
	Research Committee on Observation
4:00—10:00 P.M.	Registration
8:00—8:45 P.M.	Opening Session
9:00—11:00 P.M.	Preliminary Caucuses

*Friday, April 13*

8:30—10:00 A.M.	Opening Assembly
10:00—12:00 A.M.	Main Committee Meetings
	Faculty Sponsor's Round Table
12:00—1:30 P.M.	Lunch
1:30—5:00 P.M.	Main Committee Meetings
2:00—4:30 P.M.	Faculty Sponsor's Round Table
6:00—9:00 P.M.	Official Banquet
9:00—11:00 P.M.	Joint Conference Committee Meetings
9:00—11:00 P.M.	Delta Sigma Rho Business Meeting

*Saturday, April 14*

8:30—10:30 A.M.	General Assembly
10:30—10:45 A.M.	Recess
10:45—1:00 P.M.	General Assembly
2:00 P.M.	Steering Committee
	Legislative and Evaluations Committee

## CONCLUSION

As stated at the outset of this article, no attempt has been made to indicate the relative merits of the types of extracurricular activities which have been described here. Each has its merits in terms of specific outcomes which may be desired; each has been tested under a variety of circumstances and has been improved through the years. Each can be properly conducted on a high educational plane; each can be misused and made to serve distinctly "uneducational" ends. What is important is that a wide variety of extracurricular forensic experiences is available to the high-school and college student. The alert administrator and director of forensics will be making a distinct contribution to students participating in forensic activities in the degree that they know of these opportunities and make them available to their students. No longer can it be said that only the "traditional debate" is available. Even though this "traditional debate" has tremendous educational values when properly conducted, the fact is that at least nine other types of forensic activities have been conceived, thoroughly tested, and revised in terms of educational principles, student interest, and efficiency of operation.<sup>11</sup>

<sup>11</sup>See James H. McBurney and Kenneth G. Hance, *Discussion in Human Affairs* (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1950), Chapter XXII, upon which portions of this article are based.

## CHAPTER XIII

# Listening Instruction in the Secondary School

RALPH G. NICHOLS

I

TODAY there is a real awakening in education to the importance of listening comprehension; that is, to the importance of learning through listening to speakers in "live" situations in which visual and aural cues complement each other in the mode of presentation. As Goldstein puts it:

In our society, reading and listening constitute the basic tools of learning as well as the prime media of social intercourse. In the fulfillment of these roles, the importance of reading has never been questioned. More recently... the significance of listening is receiving increased attention.<sup>1</sup>

The purpose of this article is to clarify the kind of listening in which our schools are beginning to become most interested, to trace the growth of recent attempts to improve this skill, to summarize what is known of the relative efficiency of reading and listening as media of learning, to delineate the premises upon which listening instruction is founded, to describe the character of the rapidly emerging direct instruction appearing in our classrooms, and to report the accumulating evidence which would seem to indicate that this communicative process is subject to training and improvement.

Loosely speaking, listening may be said to be of three kinds, with each kind serving a different end: (1) appreciative listening to any kind of stimuli gratifying to the senses of the hearer; (2) critical listening to persuasive speech for the purpose of evaluating the speaker's argument and evidence; (3) discriminative listening to informative speech (usually in an instructional situation) for the purpose of comprehension—and perhaps later utilization—of the ideas and information of the speaker. This article, it should be clearly understood, deals only with the kind of listening described under the third category.

<sup>1</sup>Harry Goldstein, *Reading and Listening Comprehension at Various Controlled Rates*, Teachers College Contribution to Education, Number 621, Teachers College, Columbia University (1940), New York, p. 1.

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Until very recent years almost no research has been done in the area of efficient listening to informative speech, whereas research in the areas of appreciation and the measurement of the influence of propaganda and other kinds of persuasive speech has always been fairly voluminous.

It is interesting to note that the design of a special bulletin dealing with public speaking should today find the inclusion of an article dealing with listening comprehension. It probably would not have been found there five years ago, for the recency of interest in this communicative skill is rivaled only by its widespread dimensions. More and more educators now willingly accept the basic concept that while obviously listening does not guarantee learning; nevertheless, learning frequently results from listening; and that most importantly, efficient listening equals learning economy.

Outstanding examples of local school systems which have inserted units of listening instruction into their curriculums are those of Phoenix, Arizona, and Nashville, Tennessee. Several states have been revising their English course of study to include training designed to improve listening comprehension. Nebraska seems to have been a leader in this respect, although Minnesota and several other states are swinging away from what has been known in the past as the English course of study toward either a communication or language arts curriculum. Of tremendous influence in setting the new direction of language instruction has been the work of the Curriculum Revision Committee of the National Council of Teachers of English. The recommendations of this committee point toward the abandonment of emphasis upon the single skill of writing and the development of a multiple emphasis upon the four basic processes of verbal communication. What is causing such a widespread departure from traditional methods of language instruction, along with an accompanying attention to listening comprehension?

#### INFLUENCE OF THE COMMUNICATION MOVEMENT

No doubt the advent of communication skills programs, as substitutes for traditional courses in college freshman English, has had much to do with developing interest. At a Chicago conference held in February, 1947, called by a joint committee from the Speech Association of America and the National Council of the Teachers of English, it was reported that communication programs in this country then totaled 300 in number. Undoubtedly the current number is considerably greater.



Most of these programs emphasize that the process of communication is predominantly composed of four skills: reading, writing, speaking, and listening. In most instances the directors have instituted units of instruction in the first three skills; and then have appointed committees to study listening comprehension and to report what kind of training in this mode of assimilation should be included in attempts to improve the over-all process of communication.

In odd contrast with all the current emphasis being given listening comprehension is the past educational neglect of this mode of learning. The *Encyclopedia of Educational Research* reports that 1951 scientific studies relating to reading had been published in the United States and England by 1939. Counting unpublished studies and those published since 1939, the number obviously runs far above the 2,500 figure. Interest is longstanding, dating back to 1880. Regional and national conferences on reading instruction are now held with considerable frequency; and the Universities of Harvard and Chicago both publish periodic summaries of research in reading. In contrast, until 1947 only fourteen scientific researches related to classroom listening comprehension had been published; the earliest one dated back only to 1917, with nine of the remainder dated 1933 or later.

Was this early lack of concern with listening due to its lesser volume of usage? Not so, apparently. Rankin, whose reports were the most conservative of those reviewed, found that of the total time devoted to communication by adults, forty-five per cent is spent in listening, thirty per cent in speaking, sixteen per cent in reading, and nine per cent in writing.<sup>2</sup> Quantitatively, at least, the importance of listening is beyond question.

Why were early educators not as interested in teaching listening as in teaching reading in our schools? The consensus of a number of laymen, when asked why they thought listening has not always been taught directly in our schools, was that listening is probably determined by hearing acuity and intelligence, and that the schools can do comparatively little about either one. The consensus of a number of university staff members when asked the same question was that probably the factor accounting for most of our neglect has been the widespread assumption that *practice* and intelligence are the only significant components of efficient listening. The men interviewed were quick to acknowledge that practice might result in as many bad habits as good ones, and many expressed interest in the influence of direct instruction upon such habit formation.

<sup>2</sup>Paul T. Rankin, "Listening Ability," *Proceedings of the Ohio State Educational Conference*, 1929, Ohio State University (1929), pp. 172-183.

## II

Three conclusions may be drawn from the early studies of classroom listening comprehension, all of them concerned with the relative efficiency of reading and listening as media of learning.

First, studies of reading and listening comprehension show them to be of approximately equal efficiency in learning. In 1917 Erickson and King compared the visual with the auditory mode of presenting classroom material to 106 pupils in grades three to nine, and found the auditory mode superior.<sup>3</sup> In 1919 Lacy found the auditory mode superior for 315 pupils in grades seven to nine.<sup>4</sup> In 1928, Russell, testing 1,080 pupils in grades five, seven, and nine, found the auditory mode superior in the fifth grade and the visual mode superior in the ninth grade.<sup>5</sup> In 1933 Lumley found the visual mode superior for 500 pupils in grades five to eight.<sup>6</sup> In 1934 Corey found the visual mode superior on immediate recall for 165 college freshmen.<sup>7</sup> In 1931 Greene found no significant difference between the two modes for 648 college students.<sup>8</sup> In 1934 Carver found the auditory mode superior with easy material and the visual mode superior with difficult material for 91 college students and adults.<sup>9</sup> In 1936 Young found the auditory mode slightly superior for 2,000 pupils in grades four to six.<sup>10</sup> In 1940 Larsen and Feder corroborated Carver's findings through testing 151 college freshmen.<sup>11</sup> Stanton, in 1934, found the auditory mode superior on both immediate and delayed recall for 160 college students.<sup>12</sup> In 1935 DeWick found slight auditory superiority throughout for 65 college students.<sup>13</sup>

<sup>3</sup>C. I. Erickson and Irving King, "A Comparison of Visual and Oral Presentation of Lessons in the Case of Pupils from the Third to the Ninth Grades," *School and Society*, VI (August, 1917), pp. 146-148.

<sup>4</sup>John Lacy, "The Relative Value of Motion Pictures as an Educational Agency," *Teachers College Record*, XX (November, 1919), pp. 452-465.

<sup>5</sup>R. D. Russell, "A Comparison of Two Methods of Learning," *Journal of Educational Research*, XVIII (1928), pp. 235-238.

<sup>6</sup>F. H. Lumley, "Research in Radio Education at Ohio State University," *Fourth Yearbook of the Institute for Education by Radio*, Ohio State University, Columbus, 1933.

<sup>7</sup>Stephen M. Corey, "Learning from Lectures vs. Learning from Readings," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, XXV (September, 1934), pp. 459-470.

<sup>8</sup>Edward B. Greene, "Effectiveness of Various Rates of Silent Reading of College Students," *Journal of Applied Psychology*, XV (1931), pp. 214-227.

<sup>9</sup>Merton E. Carver, *A Study of Conditions Influencing the Relative Effectiveness of Visual and Auditory Presentations*, Unpublished doctor's dissertation, Harvard University, 1934.

<sup>10</sup>William E. Young, *The Relations of Reading Comprehension and Retention to Hearing Comprehension and Retention*, Doctor's thesis, State University of Iowa, 1930.

<sup>11</sup>Robert P. Larsen and D. D. Feder, "Common and Differential Factors in Reading and Hearing Comprehension," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, XXXI (April, 1940), pp. 241-252.

<sup>12</sup>Frank N. Stanton, "Memorized Advertising Copy Presented Visually vs. Orally," *Journal of Applied Psychology*, XVIII (February, 1934), pp. 45-64.

<sup>13</sup>Henry N. DeWick, "The Relative Recall Effectiveness of Visual and Auditory Presentation of Advertising Material," *Journal of Applied Psychology*, XIX (1935), pp. 245-264.

In 1936 Elliott found the auditory mode superior, significantly so in fourteen of twenty items explored, for 143 college students.<sup>14</sup> In 1940 Goldstein, in his study already cited, found the superiority of the auditory mode more marked on easy material for 280 subjects of varied ages. In the association-recall type of study (remembering fictitious trade names of advertised articles, and the content of the advertising) three studies by DeWick, Elliott, and Stanton, respectively, found the auditory mode superior.

*Second*, studies of reading and listening comprehension show them to be closely related skills. Young reported a coefficient of correlation of  $.80 \pm .025$ . Larsen and Feder reported  $.82 \pm .02$ . Goldstein reported .78, and also .50 when intelligence was held constant. Knower, Phillips, and Koeppe, in a co-operative study, reported the only low correlation found, one of .27.<sup>15</sup> Horn<sup>16</sup> and Stroud<sup>17</sup> both seem to feel a coefficient around .70 or .75 to be approximately correct.

*Third*, a study of the relative efficiency of reading and listening comprehension at several controlled rates shows that variations in the rate of assimilation do not significantly alter the comparative efficiency of the two skills. Goldstein compared results at very carefully controlled rates of presentation of 100, 137, 174, 211, 248, 285, and 322 words per minute. Listening comprehension was at least slightly superior at all rates except the fastest, where the difference was negligible. He observes that:

It is very interesting that listening comprehension should hold its own with reading comprehension at a rate of presentation of about 325 words per minute, in view of the fact that none of the subjects had ever heard speech delivered at that rate before, whereas many may have read at even faster rates.

The method of oral presentation in nine of the fourteen objective studies of classroom listening comprehension mentioned in the foregoing review was for the conveyor of the material to read aloud to the listeners in a face-to-face situation. In three other instances, loud-speaker systems or semi-radio communication constituted the medium for conveying the material being orally presented—in one, a combination of presentation methods was used; and in the final instance, presentation was accomplished through the use of phonograph recordings.

<sup>14</sup>F. R. Elliott, "Meaning for Visual, Auditory, and Visual-Auditory Material," *Archives of Psychology*, May, 1932, p. 69.

<sup>15</sup>F. H. Knower, David Phillips, and Fern Koepel, "Studies in Listening to Informative Speaking," *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, XL (January, 1945), Number 1.

<sup>16</sup>Ernest Horn, "Language and Meaning," Chapter XI, *Forty-First Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education*, Part II, Bloomington, Illinois, Public School Publishing Company (1942), pp. 377-413.

<sup>17</sup>James B. Stroud, *Psychology in Education*, New York, Longman's Green and Company, 1946, p. 448.

The study in which recordings were used was done by Goldstein, and deserves more detailed examination. It was done with extreme care and throws a good deal of light upon any projected research in the area of face-to-face speaking and listening. His observation, for instance, that "The obtained superiority of listening comprehension over reading comprehension and the larger differential for easy material suggest the hypothesis that past practice and habituation may account for the findings," deserves serious consideration. If this hypothesis is sound, it would appear that much can be done to improve listening comprehension through training and careful guidance in the establishment of listening habits. Goldstein further observes that "One fourth of the experimental group scored significantly higher on one or the other mode. This fact is of importance in pointing the way to possible diagnosis and remedial treatment in school.... The reading-listening differential may thus furnish a good index of educability." Again, from this conclusion, it would appear that education has too long neglected an important method of learning.

A second study, one by H. E. Jones, deserves close scrutiny.<sup>18</sup> Although Jones' real interest was to study the effect of written examinations upon the permanence of learning, many of his techniques carry implications for research in listening comprehension. When his speakers delivered lectures, or lecture samples, extemporaneously, for example, they apparently satisfactorily covered the materials over which his students were examined.<sup>19</sup>

He found that tests for the content of class lectures, as well as for the content of lecture "samples" organized for reading in five-minute selections, resulted in an average score of about sixty per cent in immediate recall; that individual differences in immediate memory covered a wide range, the highest in each group performing about six times as well as the lowest, in number of points retained; and furthermore, that "The restricted efficiency of the lecture method is shown by our data.... After two months, hardly more than one third remains of the amount which could be recalled in immediate tests, and less than one fourth, on the average, of the essential points emphasized in the lectures... a control lecturer, chosen on the basis of exceptional skill in lecturing, obtained only slightly better results." Such findings certainly suggest that classroom lecturing seriously needs to be improved; but they also

<sup>18</sup>H. E. Jones, "Experimental Studies of College Training," (The Effect of Examination on the Permanence of Learning), *Archives of Psychology*, Columbia University, LXVIII (1923), Number 68.

<sup>19</sup>The subjects tested in this study were drawn from twelve undergraduate sections in general, developmental, and experimental psychology. In all, there were 30 different experiments, with the number of subjects varying from 57 to 782. In all experiments the investigators strove to establish and maintain a normal classroom atmosphere.

appear to indicate that a refinement of the listening habits and abilities of students is needed equally as much.

It is difficult to generalize accurately with respect to the efficiency of listening as a medium of learning. Various studies have reported this assimilative process to vary all the way from ten to seventy per cent in efficiency after a lapse of two or three months. Furthermore, it is perfectly possible through statistical means to control the difficulty of the measuring device, and thus make the population tested look very weak or very strong in its ability to comprehend and retain materials orally presented. Nevertheless, a fairly safe broad generalization, substantially supported by the research of the men already mentioned, and more recently by Clyde Dow and Charles Irvin at Michigan State College, by Thomas Blewett at the University of Missouri, and by K. O. Johnson and Ralph Nichols at the University of Minnesota, would be that after a lapse of two months or more, learning through listening seems seldom to exist above a twenty-five per cent level of efficiency. In the bulk of these instances, the materials orally presented seldom had a length of more than ten or fifteen minutes duration. No doubt when lower levels of efficiency are reported, they are usually based upon lengthier oral presentations.

### III

Certain common premises seem to constitute the foundation for the various courses designed to improve listening comprehension already instituted in a substantial number of schools and colleges. They are:

1. Listening is a very significant medium of learning.
2. Listening is subject to training and improvement. (Despite the differences between listening and reading, the two assimilative processes have many elements in common. The thought has frequently been expressed that if the coefficient of correlation between two skills runs as high as .70 or .75, and that if training in one of these skills has been thoroughly demonstrated to be possible, then it is reasonable to assume that training in the other skill should be easily possible.)
3. Although parents should be concerned with the formation of good listening habits, instructors interested in communication or language facility must assume the chief responsibility.
4. Instruction in reading does not provide adequate training in listening. (Although there is a distinct similarity between these two assimilative skills, there are also some marked differences. The receptive mechanisms are different; listening is the assimilation of aural plus visual cues, reading the assimilation of visual cues alone; listening is usually a socialized activity, reading usually a personalized activity; listening demands considerable adjustment to a pace set by the conveyor, reading only an adjustment to the pace desired by the assimilator.)

5. Specific and appropriate objectives upon which to base listening instruction are readily defined and stated. (The following five objectives have frequently been reported by schools already providing this type of training: (1) to develop a respect for listening as a medium of learning; (2) to eliminate bad listening habits already acquired; (3) to develop the basic skills essential to good listening habits; (4) to increase markedly experience in listening to difficult informative speech; (5) to co-ordinate specific listening assignments with related assignments in speaking, reading, and writing.)

Few educators will question the validity of the foregoing premises. A greater point of interest will undoubtedly involve the word *how*. How does one actually go about teaching listening? What is the classroom procedure—a complete reliance upon practice in listening to lectures? How does one know when his students have improved through direct training? Such queries are legitimate and pertinent. They deserve careful consideration.

The course label might lead to the inference that classroom procedure is predominantly that of practice in listening to lectures. Such is not the case. Although motivated practice may be said to be the core of the training, there is probably no more lecturing in listening classes than in any other kind. Individual conferences, individual reports, socialized recitations, various kinds of directed or organized discussions all have a place. There is nothing mysterious about the methods of teaching listening. It is taught much as any language art or skill is taught, with most of the conventional classroom procedures incorporated at one stage or another during the term.

Presently, the teaching of listening is a re-educative process in which an attempt is made to substitute good habits for bad ones. Most standard texts in psychology present in detail the steps necessary to uproot one habit and replace it with another. Thus, this chapter will not go into detail on how bad listening habits are to be eliminated. It is of the most extreme importance, however, that bad listening habits be identified as such and be completely understood by both student and teacher.

#### BAD LISTENING HABITS

Fortunately, recent research has identified rather clearly ten specific bad listening habits to which both secondary-school students and college freshmen are almost universally addicted.<sup>30</sup> Early research in this area has since been substantially corroborated by the studies of Professors Clyde Dow and Charles Irvin at Michigan State College.

<sup>30</sup>See Ralph G. Nichols, "Factors in Listening Comprehension," *Speech Monographs*, XV (1948), pp. 154-163.

Their work has not as yet been published, but should soon appear in our professional literature. On the basis of what is now known, the following ten bad listening habits may be listed as those most frequently encountered among student populations.

1. Condemning a speaker's subject as uninteresting before analyzing its values in terms of one's own future welfare;
2. Criticizing the speaker's delivery instead of concentrating on his message.
3. Preparing an answer to a point, or a question about a point, before comprehending the point.
4. Listening only for facts.
5. Wasting the advantage of thought speed over speech speed.
6. Tolerating or creating distractions which needlessly impair listening efficiency. (Hearing disability, speaker inaudibility, noisy neighbors, poor ventilation.)
7. Faking attention to the speaker.
8. Permitting personal prejudices or deep-seated convictions to impair one's listening comprehension.
9. Avoiding listening to difficult expository material.
10. Trying to take notes in outline form in every instructional speaking situation.

It seems entirely probable that most adults as well as most students are guilty of practicing some if not all of the foregoing bad listening habits in most instructional listening situations.

#### GOOD LISTENING HABITS

Effective listening depends upon the replacement of our bad listening habits with four central listening skills. Classroom assignments and exercises designed to develop these skills are limited only by the willingness of the learner and the imagination, ingenuity, and creativeness of the instructor. Again, it is essential that both the learner and the teacher thoroughly understand the ramifications and implications of the habits and skills to be formed. Thus, in the following enumeration, each of the four skills is described in considerable detail.

##### 1. *Analyzing each topic for values to the listener personally*

To exploit this habit fully demands an ability to develop speedily in each situation one's own motive for efficient listening. Introspection just before an oral presentation is launched frequently results in an amplification of the initial motive which had served to involve one in the immediate situation. Good listeners characteristically make such a self-analysis; poor ones frequently condemn a speaker's subject as uninteresting before evaluating it in terms of their own future welfare.

The listener will make this self-analysis with much greater consistency and develop much greater skill in making it once he is thoroughly



impressed with the significance of listening as a medium of learning. Secondary-school teachers would do well to develop within their students a respect for the listening process by making it very clear that listening efficiency can be measured, improved, and re-measured; by further making it clear that quantitatively listening is the most used of the four communicative skills; that assimilation through the ear is multi-directional while that through the eye must be focused; that the ear is more sensitive than the eye, requiring for activation but  $10^{-10}$  microwatts of energy per square centimeter whereas the eye requires for activation  $10^{-9}$  microwatts of energy per square centimeter; that reaction time for sound is faster than for light, the figures being 153 and 174 milliseconds, respectively; and that the ear appears to be much more durable than the eye, with a much greater capacity for continuous use.

## 2. *Listening for central ideas*

Good listeners focus on central ideas; they tend to recognize the characteristic language in which central ideas are usually stated, and they have the ability to discriminate between fact and principle, idea and example, evidence and argument. Poor listeners tend to lack these discriminative powers and are inclined to announce with pride that they "listen for the facts" in every presentation.

To develop this skill speedily and to build it into an automatic habit practiced in all instructional situations demands mastery of a number of techniques readily taught in the classroom. Consistently demanded are an ability to recognize conventional compositional techniques including the arrangement of subject matter according to a definite pattern, partitioning through the use of transitional language, the use of recapitulation, and the relating of the speech to preceding and following units of instruction. It further demands an adjustment of one's system of note-taking to the organizational plan of the speech. Good listeners usually possess these abilities; in addition, many of them have evolved economic methods for improving their own vocabularies. Poor listeners usually do not possess and practice these skills; an overwhelming majority of them regard note-taking and outlining as synonymous terms and diligently try to make an outline of every oral presentation regardless of its organizational pattern.

A quite specific explanation of how officers in the United States Air Force are taught to listen for central ideas through the instruction they receive in the Academic Instructor Division appears in a recent article by Francis Drake.<sup>21</sup> He writes:

<sup>21</sup>Francis E. Drake, "How Do You Teach Listening?" *Southern Speech Journal*, June, 1951, pp. 268-271.

After a student speaks, each of his classmates is asked to write down the main idea or generalization which has been communicated. The listener is also asked to reproduce the underlying structure of the speech—that is, to identify three or four subordinate ideas which contribute to the main idea or thesis. Although this listening exercise appears to be very simple, it actually is a task for many of the students. For example, one student speaker in developing the concept that we need to see the other man's point of view in dealing with world affairs, pointed out that we much understand countries in Asia in terms of their history. As an example, he mentioned that parts of China have been "carpet bagged" for years. In developing further the failure of Americans to recognize the Asiatic's attitude toward us, he brought in the fact that nationalistic pride dislikes charity. Although this speech was brilliantly organized and delivered, the listeners' reactions were surprising. A few students came up with the intended broad generalization: too many of them wrote down miscellaneous specific points such as "Asiatics are proud" and "China has been carpet bagged."

With practice, the students, who are initially rather inefficient listeners, develop skill in finding main ideas and in relating these ideas structurally to the thesis of the speech. Furthermore, this exercise in listening is also an effective motivation for the student speaker. When a student speaker finds that only twenty per cent of his audience gets the idea he intended, he begins to realize the complexity of the act of oral communication. He senses the differences existing within his audience and strives to meet this challenge by selecting a variety of concrete supporting material which will more fully cover the range of experience of his audience.

### 3. Seeking frequent subjection to difficult expository material

Good listeners are acquainted with, and have had experience in listening to, such radio programs as *Invitation to Learning*, *America's Town Meeting of the Air*, *The Chicago Round Table*, *Meet the Press*, and *The American Forum of the Air*. They have apparently developed an appetite for hearing a variety of expository presentations difficult enough to challenge their mental capacities. Poor listeners, on the other hand, tend to be *inexperienced* in aural assimilation of difficult material. Few have listened through even one of these particular broadcasts; many are unacquainted with either the title or nature of these programs.

Secondary-school teachers could contribute much by making it abundantly clear that students who painstakingly avoid "tough" listening situations all their lives are pitifully unequipped to listen adequately when difficult expository presentations are encountered following graduation. To insure that every learner acquires experience in listening to difficult aural presentations of graduated difficulty ought to be made an integral part of every speech and English course. Motivated, intensive practice of this kind is invaluable to those who plan to enter college. If such motivated practice does *not* become a part of secondary-school training, the youngster who has developed

an appetite for easy listening experiences only will be entirely out of his depth when suddenly plunged into his first college lecture in physics or chemistry.

#### 4. *Exploiting fully the rate differential between thought and speech*

The core of the problem of effective listening may be said to be the development of utmost possible concentration in the immediate listening situation. The most significant single factor bearing upon the improvement of concentration is the great rate differential between thought and speech. Whereas the typical lecture is given at about 100 words per minute, there is evidence to indicate that, if their thought rate were similarly measured, most students normally think at a pace about five times this fast. All kinds of stimuli leading to mental tangents operate in every socialized listening situation. The rate differential between thought and speech encourages embarking upon these mental tangents, whereas efficient listening demands continuous attention—a staying “on track” with the speaker.

With training, students learn to stay on track without sacrificing their own optimal thought speed. For this, four ingredient skills in concentration are needed: mental anticipation of each of the speaker's points; identification of the techniques used in the development of each point; mental recapitulation of points already developed; and an occasional search for meanings implied but not stated. When students try to reduce their normal thought rate to the slow, bumbling pace of the typical informative speaker, the number of their mental tangents is increased.

### V

To date, there have been three types of approaches to listening instruction. Each deserves at least a brief consideration.

#### DIRECT INSTRUCTION

The first approach could be called the direct approach. It involves lectures or articles emphasizing the importance of efficient listening—socialized recitations designed to develop respect for this medium of learning; discussion of the skills necessary to effective performance; classroom exercises to develop these skills; detailed consideration of concentration in listening situations; periodic progress tests; and, finally, before and after testing to measure the influence of the training.

#### CO-ORDINATION OF LISTENING AND SPEECH INSTRUCTION

The second approach is through a co-ordination of listening and speech instruction. In schools where there has been no opportunity to

institute a course labeled "listening," the next best alternative has frequently seemed to be the dovetailing of listening assignments into routines already established in speech classes. There are many desirable aspects to this method. Some instructors have become so enthusiastic about it that they refuse to give a speech-making assignment without an accompanying listening assignment designed to develop one or more of the good listening habits that has been quite generally accepted.

### THE LISTENING LABORATORY

The third method of developing listening efficiency currently being used is through the use of a listening laboratory. This approach certainly does not preclude the use of the others, and will undoubtedly prove most effective when it merely supplements them. The general scheme of its operation is very similar to that of any successful reading laboratory, and is based upon these premises:

1. That few students have ever had the satisfying experience of listening in a controlled environment. The national housing shortage of the past decade has caused such an overcrowding of our homes that a quiet spot in any one of them is a rarity indeed. In most homes, all kinds of mechanical apparatus add to the clamor of two or three radios, electric trains, phonographs, and passing traffic. Some students have actually never once enjoyed the experience of listening to an oral presentation of difficult expository material in a reasonably favorable environment.

2. That few parents have provided their children with listening experiences of graduated difficulty. Thus, many a youngster listening to expository material much too difficult for him merely builds defenses against listening to *all* difficult expository material.

3. That, if listening experiences of graduated difficulty were provided each learner, bad habits could be avoided and the acquirement of good listening habits much simplified.

The following items are essential if laboratory training is to be provided for those students who are interested in improving their listening efficiency.

1. An acoustically treated room, always accessible. If special cells or acoustically treated cubicles for individual use can be included in the room, so much the better.

2. A library of recorded instructional materials. These recordings may be on tape, wire, or disc, and should be short lectures, informative, organized discussions, or cuttings taken from long lectures. Lecture content should be drawn from many different subject matter areas. If the group is coeducational, the areas should include language, literature, and social sciences, which girls learn more readily, as well as mathematics, economics, and physical sciences, which male students learn more readily.

3. Play-back apparatus.

4. Objective tests to accompany each recorded item of instructional material. These objective tests should have been item-analyzed and re-fined, with their reliabilities stated and their validity verified.

5. An indexing and filing, according to their determined order of difficulty, of both the recorded informative presentations and their accompanying tests.

In operation, the listening laboratory functions typically in the following fashion. Before and after the period of training, a general test of listening efficiency is given all students interested or involved. Then each individual student (or groups of students, when feasible) enters the listening laboratory on his own volition and at any time of day convenient to him. He selects the easiest instructional material in the file, puts it on the play-back, sits down, and listens to it. From a different file, he takes the appropriate objective test which will reliably measure his comprehension of the recorded instructional material. He takes the test and scores his own paper with the key taken from still a third file. The resulting test score is recorded on an individualized progress chart kept on a bulletin board within the room. He then puts away all materials, leaves the room, and returns at the next convenient opportunity to repeat the same performance, each time using materials of greater difficulty. At the end of such period of time as is necessary for the student's completion of the prescribed series of listening experiences involving difficult expository materials, he informs the instructor and asks for an administration of the post-test of listening efficiency.

## VI

Do students actually improve in listening ability through direct training in listening comprehension? Evidence to the contrary is unavailable, and considerable evidence is accumulating which points to a strongly affirmative answer.

### LISTENING CAN BE IMPROVED

A recently completed doctoral thesis by Arthur N. Heilman at the State University of Iowa reveals statistically significant differences in listening performance by student groups with and without direct training in listening. Somewhat similar results, although the procedural bases were not the same, may be noted in the unpublished theses of K. O. Johnson and Oscar M. Haugh at the University of Minnesota. The former was a Master of Arts study; the latter, a doctoral dissertation. The as yet uncompleted and unpublished studies of Professor Charles

Irvin at Michigan State College give encouraging signs of showing that direct training in listening results in improved listening performance.

At Minnesota, in terms of results obtained on the two types of measuring instruments we are now using, we find that in a typical term the total freshman population on the average responds correctly to about fifty per cent of the items in the tests. Special training is given the lowest-scoring ten per cent of the freshman population. At the end of twelve weeks, when all freshmen are retested with the same measuring instruments, the average score on the retest of the group given direct training in listening has each term been found to approximate closely the average retest score of those who have not had direct training. This outcome is given added significance through the typically platykurtic distribution of test scores. Normally the semi-interquartile range on these tests is approximately three times as large as the probable error of a single score. The inference that the gains made by the group given direct training are real ones is strengthened when it is remembered that the directly trained students are drawn from considerably less than one fourth of the total range in listening ability.

While from its close similarity to reading comprehension there appears to be no reason to believe that listening comprehension should not be equally subject to training and improvement, we have not as yet been able to secure results as impressive as those obtained in reading improvement through direct training. This is not too discouraging when one remembers the vast amount of research upon which training in reading is based. We have as yet found no evidence to indicate that training in listening will not eventually be as productive as direct training in reading.

#### IMPROVEMENT CAN BE MEASURED

Perhaps the first standard test of listening ability is described in an article by Dr. James Brown in a recent issue of *The Journal of Communication*.<sup>22</sup> This objective instrument, of which the World Book Company is the publisher, is geared to the use of students at the junior-high, senior-high, and college-freshman levels. It should be valuable to any instructor inaugurating a program of training in this communicative process. Although there are a number of other objective measures of listening ability presently in use, the writer knows of none which has as yet been standardized.

<sup>22</sup> James I. Brown, "The Objective Measurement of Listening Ability," *Journal of Communication*, I (1951), pp. 44-48.

## VII

Who is going to do the teaching? Although all school teachers and parents should be concerned with the formation of good listening habits, English and speech teachers must obviously be held chiefly responsible. Logically, listening must be considered alongside other communicative skills. Until a corps of trained listening teachers is available, it has already become highly conventional procedure to borrow personnel trained in related areas. Education, speech, and English must supply the needs for a few years.

Fortunately, it is no inconsiderable number of speech and English teachers who are definitely interested in the teaching of listening. Sectional programs devoted to this skill during recent professional conventions have drawn heavy attendance; and the author, alone, has been in correspondence with more than one hundred persons interested in teaching listening.

The very fact that this area has been seriously neglected until recent years now enhances its attractiveness as an area for definition and research. It seems entirely probable that within three or four years a fairly imposing number of teachers trained in listening comprehension will be ready to accept classroom appointments. Graduate-level research is present under way in the Universities of Iowa, Nebraska, Minnesota, Wisconsin, Missouri, Denver, Colorado, Chicago, the Air University, and Michigan State College. No doubt it exists in other institutions about which the writer is uninformed.

## VIII

There is every indication that the present trend toward increased emphasis upon the teaching of the communication skills in the schools is likely to continue and to grow. Ever since Dr. Paul Rankin first discovered that on the average seventy per cent of our waking hours are spent in the four processes of verbal communication, and then verified his finding through subsequent repetitions of his study, educators have been increasingly concerned with adding to the amount of time during the school day devoted to training in communication. The movement throughout the country toward general education has tended to move us all farther along in this same direction. But the significant fact is that along with increased emphasis on communication has come an even more pointed emphasis upon the aural processes of communication. After all, seventy-five per cent of all verbal communication is aural: forty-five per cent devoted to listening, and thirty per cent devoted to speaking. As the aural processes edge into the curriculum,



attaining more nearly their logical status there, it is reasonable to assume that the more distant goal of over-all language adequacy will be more nearly realized.

At what grade level should listening be taught? Obviously, if we are over a period of time to make the re-educative character of listening instruction a strictly educative one, our training must start with the pre-school child and continue upward through every grade level. Of particular importance in this sequence is the secondary school, for at the age levels involved there are very distinct influences bearing upon disciplinary problems encountered among the students. Several secondary-school principals have already expressed to the writer their gratification upon finding that the high-school youngster who has developed a respect for listening as a medium of learning in the classroom somehow automatically becomes much less of a disciplinary problem.

As training in listening assumes greater stature within the total curriculum, our great need for research and a continual refining and sharpening of our measuring instruments becomes ever more evident. The more clearly we understand the skills necessary to high-level listening performance, the more effective will become our training program. Two elementary questions need immediate investigation: How much of our listening do we do with our eyes? Or to put it differently, what are the relative weights of the visual and aural cues in listening comprehension? And what proportion of the time in which students ostensibly listen to an instructor do they actually listen to him? These issues, along with scores of others, must be answered through research if "every teacher is to become an effective teacher of listening." One of the truly gratifying attributes of the general communications movement is that it has served to launch an ever-increasing number of graduate research problems of this very kind.

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#### ERRATA

The article entitled "Coal Mining, A New Course" which appeared in the January, 1952, issue of THE BULLETIN listed as authors R. P. Hibbs, Principal, and D. W. Hortin, Assistant Principal of the Du Quoin Township High School, Du Quoin, Illinois. The authorship of this article should have been attributed to Mr. Charles Swinney, Coal Mining instructor at the Du Quoin High School. It was submitted by his principal and assistant principal and, as a result, credit was incorrectly given by the editorial staff of THE BULLETIN.

## CHAPTER XIV

# Experimental Studies in Debate, Discussion, and General Public Speaking

WILLIAM S. HOWELL  
WINSTON L. BREMBECK

EDUCATIONAL activities of all kinds must be under constant appraisal through objective experimentation if they are to be sound and kept servant of the goals being sought. The body of experimental studies in the fields of discussion, debate, oratory, and related activities has grown steadily in quantity and quality during the past quarter century. Today this experimental literature includes more studies than can be reviewed in the present chapter. Therefore, we have surveyed only those studies which bear most directly and significantly on those speech activities being treated in this publication.

### EXPERIMENTAL STUDIES IN ARGUMENTATION AND DEBATE

The study of the effects of debating on attitudes has been the object of a number of researchers. Woodward<sup>1</sup> made the most extensive study of the effects of debating on the attitudes of listeners. Using a shift of opinion ballot, he analyzed the opinion shifts made by 3,540 voters, members of 118 audiences who listened to debates on eight different topics. These listeners included members of church groups, luncheon clubs, and lodges. A summary of all ballots follows:

#### *Before the Debate*

1,303  
1,162  
1,075

In favor of the motion  
Undecided  
Opposed to the motion

#### *After the Debate*

1,652  
345  
1,543

Fifty-one and nine tenths per cent of the 1,303 who originally favored the motion reported that their opinions were strengthened by the debate; 17.5 per cent, that their opinions were weakened; and 30.2

<sup>1</sup>Howard S. Woodward, "Measurement and Analysis of Audience Opinion," *Quarterly Journal of Speech*, Vol. 14, (February, 1925), pp. 94-111.

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per cent, that their opinions were unchanged. The 1,075 listeners who originally opposed the motion reported similar results. Fifty-two and seven tenths per cent reported their opinions were strengthened; 17.1 per cent, that their opinions were weakened; and 30.2 per cent that their opinions remained unchanged. Of the 1,162 who were undecided before hearing the debates, 40.9 per cent shifted to the affirmative after hearing the debate; 43.3 per cent shifted to the negative; and 15.8 per cent remained undecided.

About 70<sup>2</sup> per cent of the listeners with initial beliefs in this experiment recorded a change of opinion after hearing the debate. It is noteworthy that the majority of these changes were in the direction of strengthening the original belief.

Several less extensive studies in measuring the effects of debates on the listeners' opinions have been reported. Utterback<sup>3</sup> reported that shift-of-opinion ballot was used at the Dartmouth-Columbia debate (1924) on the question of whether the United States should enter the World Court. One third of the audience recorded at least some shift of opinion.

Gilkinson<sup>4</sup> reported that of a total of 758 ballots marked before and after the Oxford-Kansas (1924) debate on national prohibition, changes of opinion were recorded by 185 voters. In the same year, Ewbank<sup>5</sup> reported the results of a public debate put on by Albion College debaters on the advisability of adopting a constitutional amendment that would abolish parochial schools in Michigan. Thirty per cent of the 298 voters hearing the debate shifted their opinions on the topic.

Capel<sup>6</sup> was interested in learning what the effects of high-school debating were not only on listeners but also on the debaters themselves. He measured the attitudes of 213 debaters from thirty-two Wisconsin high schools on Federal aid to education before and after a season's debating on this problem and found that 40 per cent had changed their attitudes significantly. Those students mildly in favor of the position they supported in debate tended to believe more strongly in that side of the question. Those who were originally more extreme in their attitudes toward the question tended at the end of the debate season to be less sure of their views. The twenty-three stu-

<sup>2</sup>William E. Utterback, *Quarterly Journal of Speech*, Vol. 10, (June, 1924), pp. 315-16.

<sup>3</sup>Howard Gilkinson, *Quarterly Journal of Speech*, Vol. 11, (February, 1925), pp. 100-101.

<sup>4</sup>Henry L. Ewbank, *Quarterly Journal of Speech*, Vol. 11, (February, 1925), pp. 101-102.

<sup>5</sup>Robert B. Capel, "The Effects of High-School Debating on the Attitudes of Debaters and Listeners," unpublished Ph.D. thesis, University of Wisconsin, 1939.

dents who had debated both sides of the question tended to shift towards a neutral position.

In testing the information and attitudes of 730 students in nine high schools, before and after listening to a debate, Capel found that 40 per cent recorded significant changes in attitude. In contrast to certain other experiments, he found that these changes tended towards "lessening the strength of the initial attitude." There was no significant relationship between the amount of information and attitude changes resulting from hearing the debates. Furthermore, Capel points out that debate would not be a good method for the propagandist.

Some studies have sought to determine the effects of the order of speeches in a debate and the order of arguments within speeches. Lund's<sup>6</sup> study wished to find out whether changing the order of speeches with the negative argument being given first would affect the final opinion of the listener or reader. Arguments of the same length and judged to be of the same persuasive quality were prepared on both sides of three controversial questions. These arguments were presented to groups of college students, the negative argument first to three groups and the affirmative argument first to three other groups. In most instances the argument presented first was most effective. Lund concludes that, "The consistency with which the first discussion was most effective in determining the final position of the subject confirms the presupposition of a law of primacy in persuasion.... In a debate, other things being equal, the affirmative... should have the advantage." He does add, however, that, in "staged debates," the order of presentation may not be so effective in that a more objective attitude may be taken by the audience toward the issue itself. Regarding the organization of his argument, Lund points out that "the debater should not follow the climactic order in presenting his argument, but should weaken sympathy with his opponent promptly by attacking the strongest argument first, thus lessening the force of his adversary's case as quickly as possible."

Cromwell<sup>7</sup> also was concerned with the influence on the attitudes held by audience members of the order in which speeches containing oral arguments are presented. His study sought to answer three questions: (1) which position of presentation, first or second, has the greater influence on audience attitude when equally strong affirmative and negative oral arguments are presented in speeches of approx-

<sup>6</sup>F. H. Lund, "The Psychology of Relief," *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, Vol. 20, (July, 1925), pp. 174-96.

<sup>7</sup>Harvey Cromwell, "The Relative Effect on Audience Attitude of the First *versus* the Second Argumentative Speech of a Series," *Speech Monographs*, Vol. 27 (no. 2), (June, 1930), pp. 105-122.

imately equal length? (2) When oral arguments are presented in speeches of approximately equal length but unequal strength on the same side of a proposition, which order of presentation, strong-weak or weak-strong, has the greater cumulative effect on the attitude of the audience? (3) Which position, first or second, has the greater influence on audience attitude when oral arguments are presented in speeches of approximately equal strength and length but on two different propositions?

To answer these questions, Cromwell set up a series of three experiments in which 1,883 students, predominately male, enrolled in beginning public speaking courses at Purdue University, heard recorded argumentative speeches advocating the affirmative and/or the negative sides of one or both of two propositions (Federal Medicine and Required Arbitration of Labor Disputes). A control group of 235 Students was used for testing the reliability of the Thomas-Remmers Attitude Scale used in the study and computing predicted scores. The results of Cromwell's experiments showed that in general—

1. The relative effect on audience attitude of presenting a recorded argumentative speech first or second in a sequence is not the same under all conditions; instead, the relative effect of the order of presentation varies with the particular combination of speeches in the sequence.

2. When recorded strong affirmative and negative argumentative speeches of approximately the same length which have been rated as equally effective are presented on the same proposition, the speech presented in the second position has the greater influence on the attitude of the listeners. This conclusion was found to hold true when the speeches were recorded by either a man or a woman speaker.

3. When, however, the affirmative and negative speeches presented are judged to be equal but weak in effectiveness, the above does not apply; instead, there is no evidence that either the recorded speech presented in the first position or in the second position has the greater influence on the attitude of the listeners.

4. When recorded argumentative speeches of approximately the same length which have been rated as possessing unequal strength are presented on the same side of a proposition, the greater cumulative effect on the attitude of the listeners occurs when the weaker speech is presented first (in the order of weaker-strong) and the strong speech is presented second.

5. When recorded argumentative speeches of approximately the same length which have been rated as possessing unequal strength are presented on the same side of a proposition, the weaker speech results in a greater gain in the attitude of the listeners if it is presented in the first position rather than the second; whereas, there is no evidence that either position (first or second) in which the strong speech is presented exercises a greater influence on the attitude of the listeners when the strong speech is presented in sequence with the weaker speech.

6. When recorded argumentative speeches of approximately the same length which have been rated as equally effective are presented on two dif-

ferent propositions, there is no evidence that either the speech presented in the first position or in the second position has the greater influence on the attitude of the listeners.

Sponberg<sup>8</sup> studied the relative effectiveness of climax and anti-climax order of arguments in a speech. He prepared a twenty-minute speech on the question: "Should a young man, subject to military service, defer marriage until the war is over?" This speech contained three arguments which had been ranked in order of importance by a board of twenty judges. The most important argument was eight minutes in length; the second, five; and the third, three minutes. It was then recorded on a large disk in such a way that, following a brief introduction, the three arguments could be played to an audience in any order desired without affecting the general logic or coherence of the speech. To one student audience of 92 persons, Sponberg presented the speech using a climactic order of the three arguments. To another audience, matched to the first, he presented the speech using an anti-climactic order of the arguments. A control group was used also.

Sponberg found that the longest argument was significantly more effective when presented first than when presented last with respect to both criteria—retention of the material and shift of opinion. He concludes: "The study revealed the operation of the law of primacy in the presentation of oral material, and, in general, favors the anti-climax order of speech composition."

Still other studies have sought to determine the effects on attitudes of various types of content in argumentative speeches. In a large and carefully controlled series of experiments, Knower<sup>9,10</sup> measured the comparative effectiveness of "logical-factual" and "emotional" speeches in changing the attitudes of college students toward the prohibition amendment. He prepared two sets of speeches for and against the question. The speeches were about 2,500 words in length, and similar in content and quality except for the fact that one set, for and against, stressed evidence and logical argument; the other, emotional appeals; 607 experimental and 300 control subjects were used. Attitudes changed significantly in the desired direction after exposure to a single speech. The greatest attitude changes were found among those who were neutral in their original opinion on prohibi-

<sup>8</sup>Harold A. Sponberg, "A Study of the Relative Effectiveness of Climax and Anti-Climax Order in an Argumentative Speech," *Speech Monographs*, Vol. 13, (1946), pp. 35-44.

<sup>9</sup>Franklin H. Knower, "Experimental Studies of Changes of Attitude: I. A Study of the Effect of Oral Argument on Changes of Attitude," *Journal of Social Psychology*, Vol. 6, (1935), pp. 315-47.

<sup>10</sup>Franklin H. Knower, "Experimental Studies of Changes of Attitude: II. A Study of the Effect of Printed Argument on Changes in Attitude," *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, Vol. 30, (1936), pp. 522-32.

tion. When a student heard an appeal *alone*, he was influenced more than when he heard it as a member of a group. The "emotional" and "factual-logical" speeches were found to be equally effective in causing attitude shifts.

When the subjects read the speeches in mimeographed form, it was discovered that, while some attitude shifts resulted, these were much smaller than the changes that came about from listening to the speeches. Knower's final conclusion was "that primacy in the order of reading influenced the amount and possibly the direction of change in attitude." This helps confirm Lund's presupposition of a law of primacy in persuasion.

Howell and Brembeck studied the effects of training in argumentation and debate on critical thinking. Howell<sup>11</sup> used a battery of four Watson-Glaser tests of critical thinking in measuring the effects of high-school debating on critical thinking ability. Two hundred eighteen debaters from twenty-four Wisconsin high schools were tested before and after the 1941-42 interschool debating season. A control group from each school was matched with the debaters in terms of age, sex, and scholarship record. The debaters outgained the non-debaters, the critical ratio of the difference in mean gains being 1.04. This means that there are approximately 85 chances in 100 that the difference is real. Experience in debating correlated highly with critical thinking scores. Howell suggests that the *type* of debating experience probably has a heavy influence on the growth in the critical thinking ability of the debaters, for the results from individual schools varied widely, some showing great debater gains, others no gain at all, and others actual losses.

The mean I.Q. score for the high-school debaters was 119, and the debaters had a scholarship record in which 50 per cent were classified by their teachers as "A" students, 35.6 per cent as "B" students. Scholarship accomplishment was more directly related to critical thinking scores than was I.Q., debating skill, or amount of debate experience. Howell states "the evidence suggests that the abilities measured by the Watson-Glaser tests are essential to the getting of good grades in high school." Only a slight relationship was found between age and critical thinking scores, but a uniform sex difference in critical thinking scores was found in favor of the males.

Using, in a related study, the same tests as Howell, Brembeck<sup>12</sup> measured the effects of a one-semester college course in Argumenta-

<sup>11</sup>William S. Howell, "The Effects of High-School Debating on Critical Thinking," *Speech Monographs*, Vol. 10, (1943), pp. 96-103.

<sup>12</sup>Winston L. Brembeck, "The Effects of a Course in Argumentation on Critical Thinking Ability," *Speech Monographs*, Vol. 16, (No. 2), (1949), pp. 177-89.



tion on critical thinking ability. Two hundred two students of Argumentation in eleven colleges and universities were tested before and after taking the course in argumentation. Similarly, the control group in each institution, matched with the experimental students as to age, sex, educational background, and debating experience, was tested before and after the experimental period.

The results of this experiment showed that the Argumentation students significantly outgained the control students in critical thinking scores. The critical ratio of the differences in mean gains was 2.56. This means that there are 99 chances in 100 that the difference is real. In ten of the eleven schools, the students in Argumentation classes had higher scores at the beginning of the semester than did the control group students. Although this narrowed the range for improvement, the Argumentation students still outgained the control students. Argumentation students with high-school and/or college debate experience made significantly higher initial (pre-test) scores than other members of the Argumentation classes. Critical thinking scores of the men in the Argumentation classes were significantly higher than the women at the beginning of the experiment; the gains made by the men during the experiment were only slightly larger than those of the women. No significant relationship was found between age and gain in critical thinking scores.

Concerning the wide variations in critical thinking gains among the experimental classes in the eleven institutions (which paralleled the variation in gains of debaters from various high schools noted by Howell), Brembeck comments: "The wide variation in individual school gains in critical thinking scores suggests that probably Argumentation, like some of the other academic courses which have been tested, can be taught in a manner which makes for greater transfer of training in the area of critical thinking."

Millson<sup>13</sup> studied the effectiveness of different styles of debating in changing listeners' opinions. Two teams of approximately equal ability and speaking skill were used. The affirmative team varied its method of debating, using the following three different "modes": (1) the *conversational mode*, which was defined as the usual blend of argument and persuasion, delivered in the tone of direct, interested conversation; (2) the *exhibitory mode*, which made greater use of appeals to the basic emotions and of rhetorical devices to provide vividness; and (3) the *academic mode*, which relied on evidence and argument and the delivery of which was more uniform than in the con-

<sup>13</sup>W. A. D. Millson, "Measuring Audience Reactions," *Quarterly Journal of Speech*, Vol. 18, (November, 1932), pp. 621-37.

versational mode and less forceful than the exhibitory mode. The negative team used the conversational mode throughout its twenty-three debates. The Woodward shift-of-opinion ballot was used to determine the relative effectiveness of the three "modes" of debating. The results of Millson's experiment showed that the exhibitory mode was most successful in securing favorable changes of opinion and in retaining affirmative opinions existing before the debate. The conversational mode ranked second, the academic was least successful.

Halstead<sup>14</sup> analyzed the records of the Michigan High School Forensic Association in an attempt to discover a possible relationship between the winning of debates and location of the contest, attitudes of the judges, coaches, and side of the proposition taken. The records for a three-year period showed that the affirmative won about fifty per cent of the debates.

The following generalizations review and summarize the more basic, rather well-established areas of agreement resulting from these and other studies in argumentation and debate.

1. Debaters may significantly change the opinions of more than a third of the listeners, the changes being dependent on such factors as the skill of the speakers and the intensity of the original beliefs held by the listeners.

2. In a debate balanced well as to the skill of the debaters and the issue involved, individual shifts of opinion may cancel each other. Audience attitudes may be changed, therefore, without changing the majority vote. In many instances, however, the shift is in one direction and the majority vote of the audience is changed.

3. Debate tends to strengthen existing beliefs rather than weaken them. Capel's study, however, took exception to this general rule.

4. There is some agreement that the affirmative may have some advantage in a debate because it presents its argument first. Cromwell's study indicates that the relative effect of the order of presentation varies with the particular combination of speeches in a sequence.

5. Knower's study revealed that "emotional" and "factual-logical" speeches were about equally effective in causing attitude shifts.

6. Training in argumentation and debate improves critical thinking.

7. Experimentation indicates that apparently some high-school and college debating is sometimes too "academic" in its presentation to public audiences.

#### EXPERIMENTAL STUDIES IN DISCUSSION

Robinson<sup>15</sup> investigated the effects of group discussion on the attitudes of 336 sophomore participants at Northwestern University.

<sup>14</sup>W. P. Halstead, "Who Wins Debates, A Statistical Study of 1,320 Debaters," *Quarterly Journal of Speech*, Vol. 26, (1940), pp. 213-221.

<sup>15</sup>Karl F. Robinson, "An Experimental Study of the Effects of Group Discussion Upon the Social Attitudes of College Students," *Speech Monographs*, Vol. 8, (1941), pp. 34-57.

Forty-three discussion groups were used, ranging in size from eight to twenty persons. Controls were 225 sophomores at Northwestern, equated with the experimental group as to age, intelligence, and speech training. Four separate experiments were completed to measure effects of various discussion procedures.

Results led Robinson to draw seventeen conclusions, from which we have selected the following as most pertinent to inter-school discussion. Modifications of attitudes from discussion were impressive; all discussion groups showed significant attitude changes. "In groups heterogeneous as to sex, both men and women made a larger percentage of significant shifts than in homogeneous groups." "Argumentative" and "dogmatic" individuals changed opinion more in discussion than did "co-operative" and "friendly" individuals. Well-informed people made relatively small opinion shifts, while large shifts were characteristic of persons lacking information. Reading selected materials produced greater shifts of attitude than did discussion. Ninety-three per cent of the experimental subjects gained significantly in information, and three fourths of the groups reached a consensus through discussion.

Simpson<sup>16</sup> used Barnard College students in an extensive experiment designed to discover some factors relating to the abilities to influence others and to be influenced by others in discussion. The more intelligent participants proved to be generally more influential; other traits correlated with ability to influence were self-confidence and radicalism. The most influential discussants were, as a rule, least influenced by others. Firm convictions appeared to increase a person's powers to influence his colleagues in discussion.

Several researchers have studied sex differences in discussion. Burt<sup>17</sup> found no significant sex differences in ability to reach good conclusions through discussion. South<sup>18</sup> interpreted a series of statistically unreliable but consistent differences to indicate that women were faster and just about as accurate as men in solving problems in group discussion, and noted that homogeneous (one sex) groups were more efficient than mixed groups when working on "concrete and personal tasks." Timmons<sup>19</sup> supplied seventy-eight matched pairs of male and female high-school juniors and seniors with factual information on a problem, placed them into mixed groups of four members each for

<sup>16</sup>Ray H. Simpson, "A Study of Those Who Influence and of Those Who are Influenced in Discussion," Columbia University Press, New York (1938).

<sup>17</sup>H. E. Burt, "Sex Differences in the Effect of Discussion," *Journal of Experimental Psychology*, Vol. 3, (1920), pp. 390-395.

<sup>18</sup>E. B. South, "Some Psychological Aspects of Committee Work," *Journal of Applied Psychology*, Vol. 11, (1927), pp. 348-368, 437-464.

<sup>19</sup>Wm. M. Timmons, "Sex Differences in Discussion," *Speech Monographs*, Vol. 8, (1941), pp. 68-75.

thirty-eight minutes of discussion, and measured the wisdom of their selected solutions. A delayed test was administered one month later. Both boys and girls made significant gains through discussion in choosing wise solutions to the given problem. The girls outgained the boys, however, with a critical ratio of the difference in mean gains of 2.28, indicating approximately 988 chances in 1000 that the difference was real. One month later this difference had dwindled to 85 chances in 100, though significant gains persisted for both sexes. Timmons concludes that his study shows no reliable advantage for girls over boys in accomplishments in problem solving through discussion. He is careful to note that such a difference may exist, indicated by the small but consistent superiority evidenced by the girls.

There is evidence that group efforts to solve problems of many varieties are generally more productive than are efforts of an individual. Gordon<sup>20</sup> demonstrated that increasing group size improved accuracy of judgments developed. Watson<sup>21</sup> found that people in groups were more successful in building words from the letters in four key words than were individuals. Thorndyke<sup>22</sup> reports an increase in percentage of correct group decisions following a discussion.

Graduate students at Columbia University were subjects in an experiment conducted by Shaw to compare the work of individuals and small groups in solving complicated problems.<sup>23</sup> Groups were homogeneous, each of four people, and group composition was changed for the second half of the experiment. For the first half, 7.9 per cent of individual solutions were correct as compared to 53 per cent of group solutions. In the second half, correctness of individual efforts was 5.7 per cent and for the groups, 27 per cent. Considerable inequality in participation was noted, and the substantial advantage in correctness of group work was suggested to result in substantial measure from the rejection of incorrect ideas by group members.

Four trained observers were used by Deutsch<sup>24</sup> to analyze and evaluate problems solving activities of "co-operative" and "competitive" groups. The co-operative groups were to be ranked on how well

<sup>20</sup>K. Gordon, "Group Judgments in the Field of Lifted Weights," *Journal of Experimental Psychology*, Vol. 7, (October, 1924), pp. 398-400.

<sup>21</sup>Goodwin Watson, "Do Groups Think More Efficiently than Individuals?" *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, Vol. 23, (October-December, 1928), pp. 328-36.

<sup>22</sup>R. L. Thorndyke, "The Effect of Discussion Upon the Correctness of Group Decisions When the Factor of Majority Influence is Allowed For," *Journal of Social Psychology*, Vol. 9, (August, 1938), pp. 343-362.

<sup>23</sup>Marjorie E. Shaw, "A Comparison of Individuals and Small Groups in the Rational Solution of Complex Problems," *American Journal of Psychology*, Vol. 44, (July, 1932), pp. 491-504.

<sup>24</sup>Morton Deutsch, "An Experimental Study of the Effects of Co-operation and Competition," *Human Relations*, Vol. 2, (No. 3), pp. 199-232.

they worked together, with a reward for the *group* in prospect, while the reward in the competitive group was to be given to the highest ranking *individual* contributor. Results showed better co-ordination of efforts in co-operative groups, a greater volume of participation in competitive groups; co-operative groups were more orderly and systematic and, ultimately, more productive. Co-operators exhibited more helpfulness and competitors more aggressiveness, but both seemed similarly interested and motivated.

Lewin<sup>25</sup> reported several experiments on effects of group decision growing out of discussion and of other common communication methods in terms of bringing about desired action. In one attempt to convince housewives to use more beef hearts, sweetbreads, and kidneys, lectures were given to three groups, and the same material was discussed in three other groups under the guidance of an expert. A later survey showed that 3 per cent of the lecture audience had served one of the recommended meats, while 32 per cent of the discussion group had served them. Individual instruction was compared to group decision in teaching new mothers proper use of orange juice and cod liver oil in feeding their babies. Equal times were devoted to individual instruction and to discussion in groups of six persons. Even though the person-to-person instruction might seem to be advantageous, in terms of action the discussion participants proved to be far ahead in using the recommended items properly. The groups had no permanent relationship inasmuch as members were farm housewives from different communities.

Millson<sup>26</sup> reported results of an experiment measuring audience reaction to a "symposium" discussion presented by student speakers from several colleges and universities. One hundred twenty-two members of a student and townspeople audience were balloted before and after the symposium, using a simple ballot permitting the audience member to check one of four proposals he favored for solving the problem being discussed, and a fifth category, "undecided" for those who had not approved a solution to the problem. Changes in opinion consisted of shifting allegiance to another solution, of choosing one after initial indecision, or becoming undecided during the course of the program. Millson compared the changes registered by this ballot with the pattern of opinion changes from debate as reported in 1928 by Woodward.

<sup>25</sup>Kurt Lewin, "Group Decision and Social Change," in Newcomb, Theo. and Hartley, Eugene, *Readings in Social Psychology*, N. Y. Henry Holt, (1947), pp. 330-345.

<sup>26</sup>William A. D. Millson, "Audience Reaction to a Symposium," *The Quarterly Journal of Speech*, Vol. XXI, (February, 1935), pp. 43-53.

Where Woodward reported that debate practically eliminated the originally "undecided" category, Millson's discussion reduced the number of "undecided" only a slight amount. Actually, 84 per cent of the original "undecided" group made up their minds in favor of a proposal during the discussion, but enough others became "undecided" during the discussion to keep the number in the category relatively stable.

Woodward reported a strong tendency for original decided opinions to remain the same or to be strengthened after debate. Millson found this to be true to a lesser degree in the instance of his discussion. As was not the case in debate, the symposium weakened many strong opinions and, apparently, did not further strengthen those that were strong to begin with.

Millson infers that while debate makes people more rigid in their prejudices, discussion tends to produce a variety of changes in all directions, possibly indicating more *critical thinking* and, hence, a more significant alteration of the opinions of the listeners.

Participants in an intercollegiate discussion conference were polled by Utterback to ascertain their views on three controversial issues of the discussion before, in the middle of, and after the conference.<sup>27</sup> A linear scale was used to register opinion, a continuum, of nine divisions running from NO to YES with "undecided" in the middle. Both discussion (of committee type) and debate were experienced in the three-day conference, making it possible to assess, roughly, some effects of each. Over the period of the conference more than half of the delegates registered a shift of opinion, and the shifts were about equally divided in direction. General movement of attitude change was away from the middle (undecided) section toward a positive decision.

More and greater opinion changes took place in committee sessions than in debate which followed. The changes from debate were, as in Woodward's study, those of strengthening conviction rather than moderating existing opinions. The tendency of discussion, by contrast, was to modify previously held convictions by weakening them or reversing them. However, those who were most certain in their initial judgments shifted least. Because of the nature of the individual attitude shifts, about equally divided in the two possible directions, the mean position of the group opinion on any of the three issues did not change appreciably.

<sup>27</sup>William E. Utterback, "The Influence of Conference on Group Opinion," *The Quarterly Journal of Speech*, Vol. 36, (October, 1950), pp. 365-370.

Observing that there have been considerable speculation and some experimentation on the relative merits of the lecture method and the discussion method in the dissemination of factual content, Rickard<sup>28</sup> organized a study "to determine experimentally the effectiveness of group discussion in the teaching of factual content." His results, which show the discussion approach to be superior, may be summarized as follows:

After proper consideration has been given to the limitations of the study, the order of differences obtained in this study indicate that the "average" student who is now receiving instruction in factual content by the lecture method may expect the following if the discussion method should be adopted: (1) the first few class sessions will show no appreciable change in the amount of factual content being learned; (2) only a few class sessions will be required before he becomes adequately skilled in the discussion method; (3) by the end of the semester he will have learned 17 per cent more factual content than under the lecture method; (4) if he is an inferior student, he will have learned 25 per cent more; (5) recognition type questions will continue to have the same degree of difficulty, but his ability in direct recall will have increased 18 per cent, and his ability to demonstrate the functional character of his learning by giving examples will have increased 28 per cent; (6) subject matter fields will still vary in difficulty, but he will find a proportionate increase in all; (7) should he examine his memory six months after the semester is over, he will find that he is able to recall 56 per cent more factual content than he would have had he continued receiving instruction under the lecture method.

Howell<sup>29</sup> used high-school students as subjects in an experiment to measure retention of factual material and attitude change resulting from two kinds of radio discussion programs, the radio round table (example, the *University of Chicago Round Table*) and the radio forum (example, *Town Meeting of the Air*). The round-table pattern proved to be somewhat more effective in teaching factual material than was the forum, but both were about equally effective in producing significant changes in attitudes as measured by previously validated attitude tests (Thurstone type) which were available for the topics used.

The two subjects of the experimental discussions were Socialized Medicine and Federal Aid to Education. Many of the audience of high-school juniors and seniors had formed opinions *pro* or *con* on these

<sup>28</sup>Paul B. Rickard, "An Experimental Study of the Effectiveness of Group Discussion in the Teaching of Factual Content," Northwestern University: *Summaries of Doctoral Dissertations*, Vol. XIV, 1946.

<sup>29</sup>Wm. S. Howell, "The Relative Effectiveness of the Radio Round Table and the Radio Forum," Unpublished M.A. Thesis, University of Wisconsin, 1938.



familiar controversial issues, with the result that the initially "undecided" group was rather small. The outstanding fact about the many attitude shifts in both directions resulting from hearing the recorded discussion programs was that nearly two thirds (61.5 per cent) of the changes were from a more extreme to a more neutral position. Here, apparently, the discussions operated to moderate extreme, possibly hastily or irrationally formed, convictions.

A post-test administered five weeks after the programs were heard revealed that the students had forgotten about half the facts they had learned from them. Surprisingly, however, there was no comparable regression in changed attitudes. Total amount of attitude shift was just about the same after five weeks, and the individuals tested proved to have retained their original changes in the same direction to about the same amount as revealed by the immediate post-test. This stability of attitude change, resulting from discussion in this instance, is in marked contrast to the substantial regression toward the initial position found in many delayed post-tests of attitude changes resulting from persuasive speaking. The persuasive talk produces an unidirectional change in attitude which seems to regress to some significant amount with the passage of time, while the bi-directional changes coming about through discussion seem to be more stable and relatively permanent.

The following generalizations summarize some basic, rather well-established areas of agreement resulting from these and other studies in discussion.

1. Discussion is effective in changing attitudes, both of participants and auditors. These changes are bi-directional, larger in the poorly informed and/or "dogmatic" individuals, and, in the case of the person of strong convictions, usually in the nature of modification of his belief. Attitude changes from discussion seem to persist longer than those from persuasion.
2. Intelligence, self-confidence, and radicalism correlate with ability to influence in discussion.
3. Groups out-perform individuals in problem-solving; "co-operative" groups out-perform "competitive" groups.
4. Group decision through discussion seems to influence action more than does individual or audience persuasion.

#### STUDIES IN GENERAL PUBLIC SPEAKING

The following experimental studies have application to the fields of original oratory, oratorical declamation, and extempore speaking. In most instances the studies also have a relationship to debate and discussion.

Haiman<sup>30</sup> sought to assess the persuasive value of the reputation and character of a speaker. Aspects of "ethos" were evaluated in the following manner. He wrote a fifteen-minute speech favoring compulsory health insurance which was administered under accompanying conditions determining variable "ethos" climates. In one experiment the speaker's character and reputation were controlled by introducing the recorded speech as being delivered by (1) a Communist, (2) the Surgeon General of the United States, and (3) a college sophomore. In a second experiment he used four student speakers who appeared to differ significantly in such "ethos" factors as physical appearance, speech competence, and likeableness. Audience ratings of these and other personal characteristics were obtained to verify that these differences in "ethos" exist in the minds of the listeners. A third experiment attempted to vary only the speaker's likeableness and physical attractiveness.

The results of Haiman's experiments showed that the variations in the prestige of the speaker produced by varying the introduction of the recorded speaker (a Communist, the Surgeon General, or a college sophomore) did significantly influence change of attitude resulting from the speech. Persons of different ethical appeal, delivering the same speech, produced different amounts of attitude change. General speech competence of the speaker seemed to increase persuasive influence. Changes in physical appearance and likeableness made little difference in persuasive effectiveness.

Other findings included the discovery that greatest opinion changes occurred in students originally opposing the proposition, that more women than men changed their opinions, and that women were more generous in their estimates of "ethos" factors of the speaker than were the men. Haiman concluded, on the basis of this study and an associated questionnaire survey of speech teachers, that some factors of "ethos" are correlated positively with success in persuasive public speaking.

Wilke<sup>31</sup> compared the relative effectiveness of the electronically unaided speech, the radio, and the printed page as propaganda devices. A ten-minute persuasive speech was delivered directly to one audience and, at the same time, the same speech was relayed to another audience in another room through a loudspeaker system. Mimeographed copies of the speech were presented to a third audience. Four different speeches were used—on war, the distribution of wealth, birth

<sup>30</sup>Franklin S. Haiman, "An Experimental Study of the Effects of Ethos in Public Speaking," *Speech Monographs*, Vol. 16, 1949, pp. 190-202.

<sup>31</sup>W. H. Wilke, "An Experimental Comparison of the Speech, Radio and the Printed Page as Propaganda Devices," *Archives of Psychology*, 1934, No. 169.

control, and the existence of God. Likert type attitude scales were used to test the subjects, 341 undergraduate students at New York University, before and after the presentation of the propaganda material. It was found that the direct speech had the greatest effect on the attitudes of the audience, the printed speech had the least effect, with the loudspeaker address taking second place.

A number of investigations have been concerned with the relative effectiveness of various kinds of speech content. Lomas<sup>32</sup> studied the relative effectiveness of provocative language (intended to distort evidence and arouse prejudice) and objective language (accurate and temperate). Two speeches were prepared, representing the two styles of language. Then each of these two speeches was recorded in two styles of delivery—provocative delivery ("oratorical") and objective delivery (conversational and more restrained). Four anti-New Deal speeches, combining the differing styles of language and delivery, were presented to experimental groups. Scales using the Thurstone method were used to measure the attitudes of the audiences toward the New Deal before and after hearing the speeches.

In the combined data for all the experiments, only the provocative speech delivered in provocative style caused a significant change in average attitude scale scores.

Collins<sup>33</sup> studied the relative effectiveness of speeches in which rational and motivational appeals were interspersed as compared with speeches which contained an extended motive appeal in the peroration. Four speeches favoring the Open Shop were prepared. The first speech was entirely motivational in character. Speech No. 2 was entirely logical and rational in character. Speech No. 3 was a series of logical arguments, each of which was followed by a short motive appeal. Speech No. 4 was given a logical and rational treatment followed by an extended motive appeal which took up approximately the last fifth of the speech. All four speeches were delivered in the same manner by the same person. The subjects, who were 277 college students not enrolled in speech classes, were asked to indicate which speech they thought was most effective. Speech No. 3, a series of logical arguments, each of which was followed by a short motive appeal, was given highest preference. Speech No. 2 was rated second. Another audience, composed of students in speech classes, also preferred speech No. 3, and rated speech No. 2 as second choice.

<sup>32</sup>C. W. Lomas, "An Experimental Study of the Effect of Provocative Language on Audience Reaction to Political Speeches," Ph.D. thesis, Northwestern University, 1940.

<sup>33</sup>G. R. Collins, "The Relative Effectiveness of Condensed and Extended Emotional Appeal," *Quarterly Journal of Speech*, Vol. 10, (1924), pp. 221-230.

Mathews,<sup>34</sup> in the interest of measuring persuasive effectiveness of emotive or "loaded" language, devised a means of identifying "loaded" language in a speech, and constructed six speeches on labor-management relations that were pro-labor, anti-labor, and neutral, "loaded" and free from "loaded" language. These were recorded by a professional newscaster and were played back to 350 college speech students. Loaded and unloaded pairs of speeches had the same factual content. Only retention was measured, although it was correlated with admitted bias on the topic of the speeches.

Loaded language neither helped nor hindered retention of the content of the speeches; no significant differences appeared. Whether students agreed with the speech or disagreed with its point of view, the emotive language used had no identifiable effect on their learning the factual content in the speech.

Lull<sup>35</sup> attempted to assess the persuasive effect of humor by comparing attitude shifts resulting from "humorous" and "non-humorous" speeches on the topic of socialized medicine. Subjects were college students; and the speeches, with the exception of the controlled variable of humor content, were judged to be comparable. Attitudes as measured immediately after the stimulus were shifted significantly. A delayed post-test three weeks later revealed a rather uniform regression toward the original attitude held, although one third of the subjects at that time still retained an attitude change that was statistically significant. "Humorous" and "non-humorous" speeches produced equally good results, and were rated by those who heard them as just about equally interesting and convincing.

Both Jersild and Ehrensberger studied forms of emphasis in public speaking. In a pioneering study, Jersild<sup>36</sup> investigated the effectiveness of twenty modes of emphasis commonly used by public speakers. A biographical sketch of a fictitious person was prepared and read to ten different audiences totaling 253 persons. In each reading, certain statements were emphasized by such devices as repetition, gestures, more vocal intensity, etc. It was found that primacy was more effective than recency and that distributed repetitions seemed to have the greatest effect. Somewhat less effective was a pause preceding the unit to be emphasized. Speaking very slowly for emphasis was found to have a negative effect.

<sup>34</sup>Jack Mathews, "The Effects of Loaded Language on Audience Comprehension of Speeches," *Speech Monographs*, Vol. 14, (1947), pp. 176-186.

<sup>35</sup>P. E. Lull, "The Effectiveness of Humor in Persuasive Speeches," *Speech Monographs*, Vol. 7, (1940), pp. 26-40.

<sup>36</sup>A. T. Jersild, "Modes of Emphasis in Public Speaking," *Journal of Applied Psychology*, Vol. 12, (December, 1928), pp. 611-20.

Ehrensberger's<sup>37</sup> study of the modes of emphasis in public speaking produced results which both agreed and disagreed with those reported by Jersild. Repetition was found to be effective, as Jersild reported, but Ehrensberger found that two successive repetitions were more effective than two distributed repetitions. Both researchers found that a pause preceding the element to be emphasized was effective in increasing retention. Ehrensberger's results differed with those of Jersild principally in two findings, that slow speech is effective emphasis, and that statements near the end of a speech are better remembered than those near the beginning. Recency was found to be superior to primacy as an aid to recall.

Drushal<sup>38</sup> studied the relative efficiency of practice in extemporaneous speaking and practice on memorized selections in training for public speaking. Two groups of twenty-four students each were used. Each student made a five-minute recorded extemporaneous speech at the beginning and end of three weeks of intensive training on speech delivery. Taught by the same instructor, one group concentrated on practice in extemporaneous speaking, the other on using memorized material. After the period of training, expert judges rated the group which had been trained through practice in extemporaneous speaking as significantly more improved in effectiveness in delivery.

The following statements review and summarize the results of the studies reviewed here and elsewhere in the area of public speaking.

1. The reputation and character of a speaker do play a significant part in the speaker's persuasiveness.
2. The face-to-face speech is more effective than the radio and printed page in influencing attitudes.
3. Persuasive speeches using "provocative" language and delivered in a provocative style were found to be more effective than the speech using more objective language and presented with more restraint.
4. Listeners tended to prefer a speech containing a series of short logical arguments, each followed by a brief motive appeal to a speech with sustained appeals, either logical or emotional.
5. Loaded language neither helped nor hindered retention of the content.
6. Humorous and non-humorous speeches produced equally good results, and were rated as just about equally interesting and convincing.
7. Repetition ranks high as a mode of emphasis in public speaking; both successive and distributed repetitions have been found to be effective. Though somewhat less effective than repetition, the pause preceding the element to be emphasized was found to be useful.
8. Practice in extemporaneous speaking was found to be more effective than practice in memorized selections in training for effective delivery.

<sup>37</sup>Ray Ehrensberger, "An Experimental Study of the Relating Effectiveness of Certain Forms of Emphasis in Public Speaking," *Speech Monographs*, Vol. 12, (1945), pp. 94-111.

<sup>38</sup>J. G. Drushal, "An Objective Analysis of Two Techniques of Teaching Delivery in Public Speaking," *Quarterly Journal of Speech*, Vol. 25, (1939), pp. 561-569.

## Best Books of 1951 on Vocational Guidance

ROBERT HOPPOCK

EACH year the author of this article undertakes to review all new books on vocational guidance, except those devoted primarily to occupational information, which are reviewed in the *Occupational Index*. The best of the books dealing with the theory and practice of vocational guidance are annotated in an annual list; this is it. Included are three 1950 references which did not reach us in time to be included in the 1950 list.

Inclusion of a book in this list does not mean that it is considered infallible. It does mean that it has been compared with other publications and considered to contain useful information that would be of interest to readers who try to keep up to date on the better literature in this field. Apologies are made in advance to authors and publishers whose books have not been included and to those who find the annotations inadequate.

BEAR, M. F., and ROEBER, E. C. *Occupational Information, Its Nature and Use*. Chicago: Science Research Associates, Inc. 1951. 603 pages. \$5.75. A textbook for counselors in training. Brings together much material heretofore scattered, most of it familiar to experts in occupational research. Adds some new evidence. Should be read by all counselors and by teachers who dabble in vocational guidance without adequate training in occupations.

BENNETT, W. *Occupations Filing Plan and Bibliography of U. S. Government Publications* and other pamphlets on jobs. La Porte, Indiana: Sterling Powers Publishing Co. 1951. 14 pages. \$3.00.

BERDIE, R. F. (Ed.) *Concepts and Programs of Counseling*. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press. 1951. 81 pages. \$1.75. Introduction, anxiety theory as a basis for distinguishing between counseling and psychotherapy, problems relating to counseling personnel, relationships between counseling organizations and other divisions, developments in counseling and evaluation of counseling.

BILLETT, R. O., and YEO, J. W. *Growing Up*. Boston: D. C. Heath and Co. 1951. 370 pages. \$2.80. A high school text on you and your future, comparing yourself with other people, finding out your

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heredity as you grow up, achieving physical health and fitness, achieving mental and emotional health and fitness, abilities everyone should have, your personal appearance, your relations with others, your interests and activities, preparation for vocational choice, educational planning, right and wrong.

———. *Laboratory Manual for Use with Growing Up*. Boston: D. C. Heath and Co. 1951. 80 pages. 60¢.

———. *Teacher's Manual for Use with Growing Up*. Boston: D. C. Heath and Co. 1951. 123 pages. \$1.00.

BLUM, M. L., and BALINSKY, B. *Counseling and Psychology*, vocational psychology and its relation to educational and personal counseling. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc. 1951. 586 pages. \$6.65. Pseudo-scientific guidance; types of counseling centers; the counseling interview; vocational testing, guidance use of intelligence, aptitude, achievement, interest, and personality tests; clinical psychology in relation to vocational counseling; integrating tests and counseling interviews; statistics in test interpretation; the concept of interest; the relation of occupational information to vocational counseling; evaluation of guidance; employee counseling; and vocational selection.

BOYNTON, P. W. *6 Ways to Get a Job*. New York: Harper and Brothers. 1951. 132 pages. \$2.00.

CROW, L. D., and CROW A. *An Introduction to Guidance*. New York: American Book Co. 1951. 430 pages. \$4.00. "...designed to be a first book for anyone interested in helping... individuals of any age to achieve desirable life adjustments." The usual principles and techniques. Separate chapters on guidance in elementary, junior and senior high school, college, and on guidance of adults.

DAVEY, M. A.; SMITH, E. M.; and MYERS, T. R. *Everyday Occupations*. New York: D. C. Heath and Co. 1950. 451 pages. \$3.24. A textbook for a high-school course in occupations. Better job descriptions and fewer vague generalities than in many similar books. Emphasis on beginning jobs, nature and conditions of work, qualifications, earnings, and promotions. Parallel columns of advantages and disadvantages for each group of occupations, selected lists of representative specific jobs, colleges, pamphlet materials and sources of further information on each major occupation.

DUNSMOOR, C. C., and DAVIS, O. C. *How to Choose that College*. Boston 16: Bellman Publishing Co. 1951. 51 pages. 90¢.

FEINGOLD, S. N. *Scholarships, Fellowships and Loans*, Vol. II. Boston 16: Bellman Publishing Co. Inc. 1951. 312 pages. \$5.00. Information on 7034 funds, administered by 245 agencies and indexed under 232 vocational goals, for high-school, college, and graduate stu-



dents. A supplement to Volume I. Indispensable in educational counseling.

FORRESTER, G. *Methods of Vocational Guidance*. Boston: D. C. Heath and Co. 1951. 463 pages. \$4.25. Comprehensive, detailed description of current practices in presenting occupational information. Briefer sections on assembling and filing materials, placement, follow-up, counseling, and individual inventory. Suggestions for classroom teachers. Methods for the course in occupations. Indispensable to vocational counselors and teachers of occupations in secondary schools.

GINZBERG, E.; GINSBURG, S. W.; AXELRAD, S.; and HERMA, J. *Occupational Choice*. New York: Columbia University Press. 1951. 271 pages. \$4.25. Report of research by an economist, a sociologist, a psychiatrist and a psychologist, undertaken in order to formulate a general theory of occupational choice. One of the few attempts ever made to get at the real fundamentals of vocational guidance. Provocative, essential reading for every vocational counselor.

GREENLEAF, W. J. *Occupations*. A basic course for counselors. Vocational Division Bulletin no. 247. Occupational Information and Guidance Series No. 16. Washington 25, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents. 1951. 193 pages 45¢. Materials and methods for a course to prepare counselors and teachers of occupations to deal effectively with facts about jobs, "the weakest link in the guidance program of the schools." Packed with useful information on occupational competencies that counselors need, student projects, field trips, visual aids, sociodrama, human factors, occupational classification, national and local outlook, occupational and educational exploration, follow-up studies and community occupational surveys. Lists of publishers, periodicals, monographs, directories, etc. Comprehensive and concise.

HATCH, R. N. *Guidance Services in the Elementary School*. Dubuque, Iowa: Wm. C. Brown Co. 1951. 113 pages. \$1.50. Proposes trips, motion pictures, filmstrips, reading, essays, and stories, to provide a planned program of gradual exposure to occupations as a basis for later vocational choice. Practical suggestions for other aspects of guidance programs in elementary grades.

*In-service Preparation for Guidance Duties*. Misc. 3314-7B. Washington 25, D. C.: U. S. Office of Education. May 1950. 41 pages. Free. Annotated list of sources of occupational and other information.

JONES, A. J. *Principles of Guidance and Pupil Personnel Work*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co. 1951. 630 pages. \$4.75. Revision of a basic text, with added material on out-of-school youth and on pupil personnel work.

*The Latest in Vocational Services.* Cincinnati: Jewish Occupational Council. 1951. 58 pages. Proceedings of Midwest Conference of Jewish Vocational Service Agencies sponsored by the Jewish Occupational Council.

MAHONEY, H. J. *The Content Considered Essential to the Basic Preparation of the Secondary School Counselor in the Area of Occupational Information.* A bulletin on counselor training. Hartford, Conn.: Bureau of Youth Services, State Department of Education. January 1951. 20 pages. Free. Items approved by two thirds of a jury of thirty-two counselor trainers, eleven state supervisors, and twenty city directors of guidance.

*1951 Directory of Vocational Counseling Agencies.* St. Louis 5: Ethical Practices Committee of the National Vocational Guidance Association, Box 64, Washington University. 1951. 125 pages. \$1.00. Agencies investigated by Ethical Practices Committee, National Vocational Guidance Association. Sponsorship, services, clientele, fees, staff, etc. for each agency.

PLAUT, R. L. (Ed.) *Opportunities in Inter-Racial Colleges*—a handbook. New York 26: National Scholarship Service and Fund for Negro Students, 31 West 110 Street. 1951. 240 pages. \$3.75. Attitudes of admissions offices and student bodies toward Negro students. Admissions policies and requirements, curricula, costs, housing, scholarships in 200 colleges which accept students irrespective of race or creed. Most of the information is applicable to students of any race.

*Pupil Personnel Services in Elementary and Secondary Schools.* Circular 325. Washington 25, D. C.: Supt. of Documents. U. S. Office of Education. 1951. 14 pages. 15¢. A simple statement of nature and scope by a conference called for the purpose.

ROSS, M. J. *Concepts of Occupational Information in General Education for Secondary School Youth.* An Ed. D. dissertation. Boston: Boston University. 1951. 150 pages. Jury ranking of 720 concepts from twenty-four textbooks of occupational information, as essential, desirable, or ineffectual. Original questionnaire, with final rank given each item.

SMITH, G. E. *Principles and Practices of the Guidance Program.* New York: Macmillan Co. 1951. 379 pages. \$3.75. Text for a first course in guidance for teachers and administrators. Leaves "detailed treatment of tools and techniques" to other volumes. Includes details of George-Barden Act on subsidized promotion of guidance. Good section on community occupational surveys.

*Why Young People Fail to Get and Hold Jobs.* New York: New York State Employment Service, 1440 Broadway. 12 pages. Free.

Thirty-nine fascinating true stories of young persons who failed, and why. Superb, human interest material for courses in job hunting, and for use in vocational counseling. Examples of attitude and behavior, appearance, unrealistic wage demands, insufficient training, applying for work with a friend or relative, impatience and unwillingness to adapt to entry job requirements, reluctance to change from school to business conditions, insistence on job though unqualified, acquiring a reputation for unreliability, over-sensitiveness about a physical defect, ignorance of labor market facts, insistence on own concept of job duties, failure to notify employer of enforced absence or tardiness, inability to get along with others, no sense of responsibility, and misrepresentation.

WRENN, C. G. *Student Personnel Work in College*. New York: Ronald Press Co. 1951. 589 pages. \$4.75. Needs of students, organization and administration, under-financial aid, student employment, job placement, admissions, student records, research and evaluation, with chapters by Ruth Strang on guided group experiences, student activities, orientation, housing, dining and health services. Bibliography.

WRENN, C. G., and DUGAN, W. E. *Guidance Procedures in High School*. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press. 1950. 71 pages. \$1.50. Survey of 1947 practices in 321 non-metropolitan high schools of Minnesota. Occupational information courses were offered in fifty per cent of the eighty largest schools, thirty-one per cent of the eighty smallest, thirty-five per cent of the total group. Vocational information techniques most frequently used were visual aids, seventy-four per cent, and field trips to businesses and industries, sixty-five per cent.

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## How to Meet the Unethical Practices of Colleges and Alumni in Soliciting Star Athletes in Secondary Schools

PAUL E. ELICKER

**E**XTRACTS of a resolution passed at the 36th annual Convention of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals in Cincinnati, Ohio, February 16-20, 1952, are recorded here for your consideration.

WHEREAS, this Association in co-operation with the American Association for Health, Physical Education and Recreation and the National Federation of State High-School Athletic Associations for a number of years has worked for acceptable standards to provide an effective educational athletic program for high schools through the Joint Committee on Standards on Interscholastic Athletics, and

WHEREAS, the Executive Committee of the American Council on Education on Saturday, February 16, 1952, unanimously approved a Nine-point Code for the control of intercollegiate athletics; this Nine-point Code seeks to combat the evils of solicitation, commercialism, and professionalism in intercollegiate athletics and this action of the American Council on Education is effective immediately and is to be enforced by the regional accrediting associations, therefore,

BE IT RESOLVED that the members of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals in annual business meeting assembled recommend that our Executive Committee commend the American Council on Education for its clear-cut stand and the full assumption of responsibility for the control of intercollegiate athletics by the administration of the institutions of higher learning, and

BE IT FURTHER RESOLVED that the members of this Association request the Joint Committee on Standards for Interscholastic Athletics, through our Executive Committee, to expand its statement of standards to include specifications pertaining to the admissions policies and practices of colleges as they relate to the high-school ath-

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Paul E. Elicker is Executive Secretary of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, Washington 6, D. C. In these statements, he reports the official action of the Executive Committee and the Joint Committee on Standards on Interscholastic Athletics.

lete and to the protection of his educational interests in high school and college.

*Standard No. 10:* "The solicitation of athletes through try-outs and competitive bidding by higher institutions is unethical, unprofessional, and psychologically harmful to the boy. It destroys the amateur nature of athletics, tends to commercialize the individual and the program, exploits athletic skill for gain, and takes an unfair and unjust advantage of competitors."

The Joint Committee on Standards on Interscholastic Athletics proposes the implementation of this standard through the following statements:

1. The functions of guidance and advisement to assist a student in the selection of a higher institution should be performed by the principal, director of guidance, or designated advisers of the secondary school.
2. Interviews between accredited representatives of higher institutions and prospective applicants for admission should be arranged only through the office of the principal or the school guidance department.
3. Try-outs of high-school athletes should not be permitted and the entertainment and transportation of boys to college campuses to display athletic prowess should be prohibited.
4. Transcripts of high-school records should be sent only to the admissions office of the college or university.
5. Standards for admission to higher institutions should apply to the athlete and non-athlete alike.
6. Only *bona fide* students who are satisfying recognized educational standards in high school or in college should be permitted to compete in athletics.
7. All financial aid offered to students should be based on demonstrated ability in high-school subjects and activities.
  - a. No athletic "scholarships" as such should be awarded.
  - b. All scholarship aid must be administered by the institution itself and not by alumni, civic groups, or other individuals, except college scholarship funds open to all qualified students and established by reputable community groups or organizations whose general purposes on scholarship awards are in accord with these principles.
  - c. Each institution should publish qualifications for all scholarships offered.
  - d. Scholarships should be limited to actual expenses for tuitions, fees, room, board.
  - e. Payment for employment should be made only when services are rendered.
  - f. No grant or award should be withdrawn because of failure of student to participate in athletics.

# The Book Column

## Professional Books

BARUCH, D. W. *New Ways in Discipline*. New York 18: McGraw-Hill Book Co. 1952. 296 pp. \$3.50. This book answers many of the most important questions of parents and teachers. It is a book that deals with parent-child relationships. The author sets forth a concept of child discipline in which she adopts many of the methods of modern psychology and psychiatry to the handling of discipline problems. The author believes that parents—and teachers—far too often feel that discipline is an "either-or" proposition, that it leads to either one extreme or the other. On one side they have visions of a spoiled, demanding, unruly child; and on the other, a child with all the initiative and spontaneity knocked out of him. They want neither of these, and they are confused as to just how far they should go in discipline. Basically, the author's idea of discipline involves a simple technique that any parent or teacher can apply—learning the underlying reasons for the child's behavior; making the child understand that you know how he feels; allowing him to let out the "badness"; and finally, channeling feelings of anger, fear, and insecurity into other emotions and activities.

BOWER, W. C. *Moral and Spiritual Values in Education*. Lexington: University of Kentucky Press. 1952. 230 pp. \$3.50. Alarm is everywhere displayed over signs of moral and spiritual poverty in our youth. Headlines on drug addiction among school children and dishonesty among collegiate athletes are bringing demands that the schools do something before it is too late. Realization grows that military power alone will not save a nation which becomes morally bankrupt. For three years, educators in Kentucky have conducted a program for developing moral and spiritual values in the public schools which would not involve an expensive new department and additional personnel or violate the historic principle of separation of church and state. This book is a report on the Kentucky experiments and a guide to those who wish to set up their own program. It is based on the idea that moral and spiritual values are intrinsic to the learning process. In the classroom and in all school activities, situations rich in value potentials constantly occur. Teachers trained to recognize value aspects in learning situations can help young people to make these values a part of their lives. The Kentucky program is a program of emphasis. It requires only that the teaching staff be made aware of the simple ways of recognizing moral and spiritual values as they occur in the learning process and of helping students to discover them.

BROWNELL, BAKER. *The College and the Community*. New York 16: Harper and Brothers. 1952. 256 pp. \$3.50. The author is sharply critical of the dissociation between the working and living community on the one hand, and the scholarly and academic interests of college teachers and students on the other. He holds that not only are the units of higher education too big, but also that they are centered on abstract and derivative

issues. From this point of view he dissects the contents and methods of instruction which he believes are threatening a real "decadence" in our colleges. And he goes on to describe in detail tested curriculum developments which could bring college and community into a more organic and fruitful working relation.

BUTTERWORTH, J. E., and DAWSON, H. A. *The Modern Rural School*. New York 36: McGraw-Hill Book Co. 1952. 506 pp. \$5.00. This book is based upon a broad concept of what comprises the field of rural education. Accepting the proposition that there are principles of education that are universally applicable, the authors begin with the assumption that good education is based on the experiences and environmental influences of youth; that the rural environment as an important aspect of American life can be, and often is, very good; and that education for people living in rural communities presents unique problems that constitute the clearly identifiable field of rural education.

The authors have endeavored to make this book useful to a large number of persons concerned with rural education; to students in the field of education, both undergraduate and graduate; to graduate students in school administration, a very large majority of whom are going to be responsible for the administration of schools that serve pupils from rural areas, though not exclusively so; to the superintendents, principals, and supervisors of community schools or school systems that include rural areas; to county and intermediate unit superintendents of schools and their professional staff members; to rural teachers, including those who teach pupils from both rural and urban environments, who need to understand the fundamentals of education that will best serve rural America; and to a considerable number of laymen interested in conserving the best of rural life and in the adjustment of schools to the needs of modern times.

Three features of this book are worthy of special mention: (1) The social and economic bases of the unique problems in the field of rural education are presented in Chapters 2 to 6, inclusive; (2) the chief specifics of the educational program needed by rural America are set forth in Chapters 7 to 17, inclusive; and (3) the ways and means of obtaining the educational program previously specified are delineated in Chapters 18 to 25, inclusive.

CAMPBELL, C. M. *Practical Applications of Democratic Administration*. New York 16: Harper and Brothers. 1952. 327 pp. \$3.00. This new volume on today's public school administrators and college students preparing to be administrators purposes to outline the role of education in promoting desirable human relations, to provide a new and meaningful interpretation of the concept of educational leadership in a free society, and to describe actual community examples of applied educational leadership. It is a symposium in which basic educational, psychological, sociological, and anthropological principles and interpretations are discussed by outstanding professors in these fields and an assistant state superintendent of public instruction. The chapters describing actual community applications of these principles are provided by six public school administrators and an assistant state superintendent of public instruction. It is a volume that will be of interest to all school administrators concerned about the role of education in implementing the democratic process.



CUNNINGHAM, RUTH, chairman. *Growing Up In An Anxious Age*. Washington 6, D. C.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, NEA. 1952. 281 pp. \$3.50. Need for an interdisciplinary approach to solution of problems in education has been increasingly recognized in recent years. This volume represents the sustained and co-operative effort of a number of specialists: educators, psychologists, psychiatrists, social anthropologists, sociologists, pediatricians, mental hygienists, economists, social workers, guidance specialists, and others. Each specialist contributes from a rich knowledge of his own particular area. Yet the focus throughout the book is upon meeting more adequately the needs of boys and girls, children and youth, in our world of anxiety and of opportunity.

DOUGLASS, H. R. *Secondary Education*. New York 10: Ronald Press Co. 1952. 642 pp. \$5.50. It is the purpose of this volume to do two things: (a) to describe secondary education as it exists today, giving some history as a basis for understanding the present conditions and some comparison with secondary education in foreign countries on the basis of which the status and trend of secondary education in the United States may be better understood and evaluated; and (b) to point out the weaknesses and the problems of American secondary education as it exists, suggesting and describing the current trends and practices, and to explain recent proposals and experimental work intended to improve secondary education. In this volume there will not be found the details of procedures. This is and should be left to books on teaching in secondary schools, on high-school administration, on high-school supervision, on guidance, and on extracurricular activities. The general sequence or order of the discussions is somewhat as follows: (a) What is the present situation? (b) How did it arise? (c) What is wrong? (d) Where are we going and why?

The book begins with a brief historical sketch giving a picture of the development of secondary education, with the special purpose of pointing out how in some respects it has gotten off on the wrong track, and how much in the program today was developed in a previous period when conditions were greatly different. It then turns to the basic philosophy of secondary education, particularly with respect to its objectives and outcomes and to the relationships of secondary education to society and to social changes, the more significant of which are summarized. As a basis for all the rest of the discussions, two chapters are devoted to the nature and problems of adolescence as they affect high-school pupils and the ways in which individual pupils differ from one another, and one chapter discusses the extent to which American youth remains in high school and the factors related to withdrawal from school. Built upon the foundations laid by the earlier chapters are two chapters on the curriculum, outlining its basic theory, its organization, and current and new practices in curriculum construction and organization. The six chapters which follow deal with the various objectives of education or areas of life for which secondary education prepares youngsters. Each of these chapters discusses the major potential contributions of each of the subject fields and of extracurricular activities to one of the objectives. Discussions of guidance and other co-curricular activities are presented next, giving their basic philosophy, organization, and relationships to the objectives of secondary

education. After the discussion of the co-curricular program, the book gives expositions and discussions of the following: (a) the changes that are taking place in teaching procedures; (b) the types of secondary schools in the United States; (c) interrelationships, including articulation, between secondary education and elementary education and between secondary education and higher education; (d) interrelations between school and community, especially in the areas of the curriculum and public relations; and (e) the secondary school staff and related problems. These discussions are introductory, leaving thorough, intensive treatment to courses to be taken later by the student. In the final chapter, after the picture of secondary education has been completed, the book closes with a concise statement of the important problems and issues confronting secondary education today.

DUBISCH, ROY. *The Nature of Number*. New York 10: Ronald Press Co. 1952. 171 pp. \$4.00. This is a book especially written for those seeking a direct and understandable way to gain an over-all view of what modern mathematics is about, an insight into the nature of its theory as a constantly expanding subject in which ideas and not manipulative techniques have the dominant role, and an acquaintance with the types of abstract problems that present-day mathematicians are interested in and working on. A major purpose of the author is to provide a means of avoiding the discouraging difficulties and confusion of thinking that arise from attempts to cover too much subject matter or too many aspects of it. To this end the treatment holds to following through one limited but typical segment of mathematical thought. Going back to the very primitive but fundamental mathematical ideas involved in counting and arithmetic, the discussion leads the reader to discern reasons and motivations through the development of one particular representative part of modern mathematics which is called the theory of linear algebras. The style of the book is informal. There is a liberal use of history, anecdote, and humor to highlight and impress significant ideas. Included are problems by which the reader can test his understanding of concepts, solutions and answers for comparison, an appendix which gives brief descriptions of some more technical matters, and a list of good books for further reading. The book is of especial interest to those preparing to teach mathematics or concerned with it in connection with scientific or other pursuits.

Educational Policies Commission. *Education for ALL American Youth: A Further Look*. Washington 6: National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth St., N.W. 1952. 400 pp. \$2.00. This revised edition is a new charter for the improvement of secondary education, containing a revision of the Policies Commission's classic volume of 1944 together with much new material. The postwar prophecies of the original book have been rewritten as history. Here are Farmville, American City, and the State of Columbia, as they are in 1952. Desirable characteristics of secondary schools for cities and for rural areas are concretely illustrated. Youth's problems of adjustment to current social and international tensions and compulsory military service are recognized. The concluding chapter reports the results of an original factual survey of recent developments in secondary education. The new book was prepared under the direction of a committee headed by Francis L. Bacon.

FISHER, J. T., and LOWELL, S. H. *A Few Buttons Missing*. Philadelphia 7: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1952. 282 pp. \$3.75. This is the story of the life of Dr. Fisher and of his experiences. It portrays his philosophy. It is a case book of a psychiatrist. Case histories have been included for illustrative purposes only. Names, initials, and incidents have been disguised to avoid identification of, or embarrassment to, former patients. As all case histories are reasonably typical, they may present some similarity to cases that have received Dr. Fisher's attentions through the years.

FRENCH, T. M. *The Integration of Behavior. Volume 1, Basic Postulates*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press. 1952. 284 pp. \$5.00. In this book a psychiatrist makes an attempt to base a psychoanalytic theory of behavior on a careful analysis of the integrative process. With the completeness afforded by a full-length study, he illustrates his theoretical discussion by a detailed analysis of the thoughts and acts of one person during two years of psychoanalytic treatment. His aim is not only to understand this one patient; his primary purpose is rather to use this case as an example to elucidate the process of integration of behavior. The author is one of the first modern analysts to undertake a study of how elementary human reactions are combined and co-ordinated into a complete behavior pattern. He here investigates one of the relatively unexplored areas in the vast field opened by the revolutionary discoveries of Sigmund Freud. In this volume, the first of a projected five-volume work, the author constructs a picture of the integrative apparatus, checking his construction against the clinical data of the same case history studied over a period of two years. As a working hypothesis, the author assumes that rational behavior and neuroses and dreams have much in common and that in irrational behavior can be found fragments of the integrative mechanism which must be postulated to account for rational behavior.

GREGG, F. M. *The People's Psychology*. New York 18: Vantage Press. 1952. 493 pp. \$5.00. The measure of control we have in making our personalities more attractive to others—and, incidentally, to ourselves—is set forth in this book. The author analyzes the things we do, and shows us what we are and how we can make progress toward what we would like to be. The purpose of the book is, broadly, to consider the psychology of the general approaches to the understanding of human personality, and to suggest the means for its improvement in any given case. The theory around which the book is organized is that man does what he does primarily because of his inborn urges and, secondarily, because of four other factors; namely, his temperament, intelligence, sentiments, and social group. The major idea running through the book is the dual nature of man in the sense of intellectualism *versus* animalism, mentalism *versus* emotionalism.

HAMLIN, H. M. *Citizens' Committees in the Public Schools*. Danville, Ill.: Interstate Printing Co. 1952. 312 pp. The book is intended for board members, administrators, teachers, and laymen interested in securing more adequate participation by citizens in public school affairs through organized lay groups. It is divided into three parts. In Part I the author states his views. In Part II a sampling of the literature is reviewed. In Part III the author indicates his general conclusions and recommendations. The book is primarily concerned with committees initiated by

schools. It provides a background of the movement for public participation in public education; reports regarding other types of organizations interested in the public schools; and reviews the literature on citizen participation.

- HARRAL, STEWART. *Tested Public Relations for Schools*. Norman: University of Oklahoma Press. 1952. 184 pp. \$3.00. It is the purpose of this book to examine candidly, and in some detail, the whole problem involved in the relations of schools to the public at large. Specifically, it interprets some of the fundamental philosophies, procedures, and objectives in school programs. In so doing the author tries to confine his discussion to those practices and problems which are a part of the normal life in the majority of schools, in order to provide administrators, teachers, school board members, service employees, and other interested citizens with an organized body of information on public relations needs and methods so that they can strengthen their roles in the over-all program.

This book is not intended to be the final answer—the master plan—to all interpretative activities of school life. Its purpose is rather to discuss and evaluate many of the techniques commonly used in schools, with the hope that school personnel and laymen—all members of the school "family"—may get a better understanding of the roles they should play in the public relations program. It deals with fundamental principles as well as practical and resultful ideas. It seeks to present the latest methods and techniques covering many phases of educational public relations. Many of the subjects here discussed have never been treated previously in any publication. It is meant as a guide book for both the experienced worker and the novice. Furthermore, it is a textbook because it presents in an organized form an overview of the whole scope and tremendous possibilities of this vital subject.

- HARRINGTON, M. P. *The Southwest in Children's Books*. Baton Rouge: Louisiana State University Press. 1952. 144 pp. This selective bibliography of children's books about the Southwest, has been compiled for all those who wish to acquaint youth with this rich and colorful section of our country. In making the selections, the primary consideration has been the use which will be made of the booklist by teachers, librarians, and parents. The purpose of the bibliography is to reveal the customs, culture, geography, history, and flavor of this unique and picturesque region. It is designed for the elementary-school level with the eighth grade as the upper limit.

- HAVEMANN, ERNEST, and WEST, P. S. *They Went to College*. New York 17: Harcourt, Brace and Co. 1952. 287 pp. \$4.00. There are already more than 6,000,000 college graduates in America. With another 2,000,000 undergraduates in our colleges, the total is increasing at a rate that would have seemed unbelievable a few years ago. By sheer numbers alone, college graduates would form an important part of our population. But their influence exceeds their numbers many times. Despite their importance, however, little has been known about college graduates as a group. This book is, therefore, a milestone book: the most complete study yet published of the college graduate in America—what college has done for him and to him—and what he (with his four years of training) has done and failed to do for America.

- HYMES, J. L. *Understanding your Child*. New York 11: Prentice-Hall, 1952. 200 pp. \$2.95. This book for parents and teachers focuses on four of the big ideas—children grow, there is a plan to the way they grow, children want things out of life, and there is some reason why—that seem true today about youngsters. But this book is even more about adults—teacher, parents. It tries to say what these four big ideas can mean when they get under the skin of the people who work with children... how these ideas can make you feel... what they do to your point of view toward youngsters.
- JOHNSTON, E. G., and FAUNCE, R. C. *Student Activities in Secondary Schools*. New York 10: Ronald Press Co. 1952. 396 pp. \$4.50. This volume reviews current school activities in which students take a large part of the initiative and responsibility, including student government, clubs, school publications, athletics, music, school camps, and many others. It explains the changes which have taken place in extracurricular activities and appraises the contribution which they make to the development of young people. The book stresses the importance of a practical application of underlying principles by the teacher and tells the reader what to do and how to do it. Intended as a text for college teacher-training courses, this discussion of school activities will also be useful to teachers in service, school administrators, student leaders, and the parents of high-school boys and girls. Topics included are: "The Nature of Student Activities"; "The Characteristic Needs of Youth"; "Pupil Participation in the Administration of the School"; "Class and Home-room Organization"; "School Assemblies"; "Clubs"; "The Social Program"; "School Publications"; "Athletics"; "Speech Activities"; "Music in the School Program"; "Camping and Outdoor Education"; "The School and the Community"; "Administering Activities"; "Evaluating Student Activities"; and "A Final Word."
- LOWENFELD, VIKTOR. *Creative and Mental Growth*. New York 11: Macmillan Co. 1952. 408 pp. \$5.00. This book is written for art teachers and all who want not only to appreciate the creative production of children merely from an aesthetic viewpoint but would like to look behind the doors to see the sources from which their creative activity springs. It is written for those who want to understand the mental and emotional development of children. The idealistic concept of the child as an innate artist who has simply to get material and nothing else in order to create has done as much harm to art education as the neglect of the child's creative impulse. In this book an attempt has been made to show methods of approach in art education based upon psychological relationships between creation and creator on the different age levels. Since these relationships cannot be bound by strict rules, the methods must necessarily be flexible. It is, however, the author's belief that as long as art is taught merely intuitively, art education is either the special province of a few privileged educators or a source of failure for the general classroom teacher.
- MILLER, VAN, and SPALDING, W. B. *The Public Administration of American Schools*. Yonkers-on-Hudson 5, N. Y.: World Book Co. 1952. 624 pp. \$4.60. This latest addition to World Book Company's New-World Education Series will interest the student, the working administrator, and the responsible citizen concerned with the community problem of school operation and improvement. The authors repeatedly stress the fact that Amer-

ica's schools are the responsibility of the total citizenry, and they outline an impressive variety of ways in which that responsibility is being and can be appropriately borne. The book drives home the importance of democratic leadership in building schools that will effectively serve society. The authors suggest a variety of ways in which democratic principles, generally acknowledged and upheld at the verbal level, can be put into actual practice. They draw upon long experience in a variety of school systems. A wealth of illustrations and sample cases point up the many possible applications of the basic principles set forth.

Part One, "Public Education in Our American Culture," affords an overview of American schools with attention to their cultural role, their complexity, their problems, and the milieu in which they exist. Part Two, "The Community Task of School Administration," treats the decision-making and execution necessary in the operation and improvement of schools. Written in terms of what can and should be done and on what basis it should be done, rather than in terms of who should do it, this section continues to emphasize the need for co-operation among the administrator, the school staff, the school board, and the citizens of the community. Part Three, "The Professional Job of Educational Administration," invites the reader to consider the specialized functions and methods of the professional administrator as he helps communities operate schools, improves the administration of schools, and improves the democratic process itself.

SAMFORD, C. D., and COTTLE, EUGENE. *Social Studies in the Secondary School*. New York 36: McGraw-Hill Book Co. 1952. 386 pp. \$4.25. This book presents examples of the ways in which social studies should be taught. Rather than merely describing methods and techniques, it furnishes material that will be helpful to student teachers, college students studying methods of teaching social studies, and teachers of social studies now in the field who are eagerly striving to maintain a commendable program of in-service growth. A new approach is used which stresses life adjustment, with both college and noncollege groups definitely kept in mind. Those interested in topics dealing with general education, core curriculum, and education for life adjustment will find this text suited to their needs. The book takes into account current trends in educational thinking, and enumerates the changes resulting from World War II.

A greater percentage of content is given over to discussions of classroom helps than is usually found in books of this kind. Less attention is devoted to the historical trends and to theory and more given to the much needed aids. "One World Citizenship" is given prominent emphasis, and stress is placed on the importance of audio-visual aids. Most of the chapters in the book contain a section which specifically deals with methods of teaching social studies to the thirteenth and fourteenth grades. Rather than organizing this information as a separate chapter, the authors have divided it among various sections. Chapters in the book are followed by a list of questions on the text and suggested activities. Carefully selected reference lists follow each chapter.

SORRENSON, F. S. *Speech for the Teacher*. New York 10: Ronald Press Co. 1952. 485 pp. \$4.50. This book recognizes today's growing emphasis on speech instruction as an essential part of the teacher-training curriculum.

Based upon the author's more than twenty years of study, teaching, and research, it offers the practical materials found most effective in helping future teachers and teachers in service to achieve speech mastery. Designed for the basic speech course in teachers colleges and university schools of education, the book takes up every aspect of speech and speech skills bearing on the needs of the teaching profession. Although the author deals with teachers' activities in and out of the classroom, major stress is upon the use of speech as a medium of instruction. Consequently, detailed attention is given to the topics of voice, diction, conversation, discussion, conference, storytelling, and oral reading.

Since school administrators expect every teacher to be to some extent a teacher of speech, the author explains how the teacher can best ground his own pupils in the fundamentals of good speech, how he can help them to speak more effectively. Throughout the writing of this book, one objective has been paramount: to present, in the most helpful form possible, information relating to speech and speech skills that is needed by the teaching profession. The content has been selected solely with the teacher in mind. Space is given to voice and diction to assist the instructor to acquire a more pleasing voice, and to inform him about the production of the sounds of American English, about diacritical marks, phonetic symbols, and the various spellings of speech sounds. The material is so organized that the reader progresses from a general discussion of the topic to its specific application to the teacher and his activities.

VAUGHAN, W. F. *Personal and Social Adjustment*. New York 3: Odyssey Press. 1952. 592 pp. \$4.25. This book dealing with mental hygiene provides a broad coverage of the area. It deals primarily with normal people. It is not an abnormal psychology. It emphasizes prevention, describing such methods that have proved successful. A major thesis of the book is that mental illness is a result of disturbances in human relations and that satisfactory adjustment requires mastery of the art of getting along with people.

WELLS, HARRINGTON. *Secondary Science Education*. New York 36: McGraw-Hill Book Co. 1952. 379 pp. \$4.50. This text represents an over-all job analysis in terms of philosophy of approach, methods of procedure, and suggested subject content, plus an up-to-date source of teaching aids. Designed to complement the author's *Elementary Science Education*, which covers the instructional sequence in grades 1 to 8, inclusive, the present volume completes the survey of science education as a specialized field below the college level. The book places emphasis upon the intercorrelation between the science fields. General science, biology, botany, zoology, chemistry, and physics are integrated in terms of scientific attitudes and concepts. School-community-industry orientation is developed as a desirable objective in a socialized program of science education, while thorough grounding in the established principles of scientific procedure is provided. The historical developmental approach is used, followed by individual treatment of each specialized subject field in the junior-senior high-school sequence.

Consistent attention is given to development of sound essentials of educational sociology, psychology, and philosophy, in developing class-



room leadership, and preparation for post-school life. Organization of subject matter content with regard to activities in and beyond the secondary-school laboratory is a feature, with full utilization of environmental influences in functional motivation. Part II, Resource Aids, provides a valuable source book of audio-visual instructional materials, and an extensive list of commercial companies furnishing science equipment and supplies.

- WIETING, C. M. *The Progress of Co-operatives*. New York 16: Harper and Brothers. 1952. 224 pp. \$3.00. More and more educators are coming to realize the need for inclusion in the public school program of a sound understanding of co-operatives, which have become an integral part of our economic system. The purpose of this book is to help improve the teaching about co-operatives. It is a teachers' guide containing information about all types of co-operatives with suggested units and materials. Emphasizing curriculum suggestions, the book first provides a review of the basic principles and practices of co-operatives in the United States and other countries. In the two following sections of the book the author gives a picture of present educational practices of co-operatives, and analyzes five widely used curriculum units by which instruction on co-operatives is now given in public schools. As a manual of basic principles of democratic co-operation, the curriculum suggestions here set forth have a broad application in such vital areas as conservation, housing, transportation, communication, production, and international relations.

### Books for Pupil and Teacher Use

- ADAMS, G. W. *Doctors in Blue*. New York 21: Henry Schuman, Inc. 1952. 265 pp. \$4.00. As you know, almost every phase of the Civil War has been covered by scholars and students of American history, but this is the first time an historian has examined the medical practices of the period. Yet, disease, infection, and malnutrition killed more men than the bullets of their opponents. The importance of the author's theme can be estimated only when we realize that our modern army medical corps, ambulance units, and nursing services date from this area which marked the beginnings of sanitary reform and concern for public health. The author has added a new and important chapter to the annals of the Civil War and he offers new, authoritative material to the general reader and the student. He has based his accounts of medical practices in the Union Army on surgeons' reports, inspectors' observations, and other first-hand material. The result is a warm and human picture of those determined men and women, civilian and military, who made the first great strides in scientific knowledge against insuperable odds.
- ALLEN, M. P. *Johnny Reb*. New York: Longmans, Green and Co. 1952. 250 pp. \$2.75. This second book of the author's to portray a phase of the American Civil War will appeal to all boys. In its pages, history comes alive. Spirited fighting is contrasted with the day-by-day camp life of very human, simple men who rode and walked and fought a war for things they believed. The men who made up the cavalry riding under Wade Hampton and Jeb Stuart were the pride of the South. Ezra and his friend, Festival Jones, see bitter action; they lark and starve, freeze and joke. They hate war more and more but see it through to the end.

ALLIS, MARGUERITE. *Now We Are Free*. New York 19: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1952. 307 pp. \$3.50. This novel of early America begins and ends in Connecticut but the eyes of its colorful characters and their thoughts and their talk are constantly turned toward the wilderness to the west—in what is now the state of Ohio. Among the young war veterans who return home after the Revolution are Ashbel Field, who wants to be a lawyer; Ezra Pomeroy, who feels a call for the ministry; and Silas Marvin, who loves the land. Involved in their destinies are such actual historical figures as Moses Cleaveland, who lead the first party of surveyors into the region, and even more notably the bluff, homespun General Rufus Putnam, superintendent of the Ohio Company and founder of Marietta. The theme of the novel is the fight for freedom of opportunity and conscience which have always been driving forces in American life.

ANDRUSS, H. A. *Burgess Business Law*. (revised) Chicago: Lyons and Carnahan. 1952. 635 pp. This book on business law has been revised to meet the present-day needs of citizens, consumers, employers, employees, and jurors. It has been written not to enable the student to act as his own lawyer, but to help him to know when he needs a lawyer. While intended for a one-year course, the material has been rearranged so that topics suggested by the Consumer Education Study of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals are placed in the first part of the book since they are of more general interest. Specific advice is given as to when to consult a lawyer.

Illustrations have been added, table showing variations of laws among states have been brought up to date; recent legislation has been introduced in its proper place. Questions to develop the knowledge of the principles of law and cases to give actual facts provide an opportunity for the application of the principles to real situations taken from life. Lists of legal terms following each chapter are intended to make business law more interesting for the student, more teachable for the teacher, and more important and practical in our daily lives. The American Way of Life is based on the Constitution of the United States. Therefore, the complete Constitution with two hundred questions in sets of twenty each are included in this edition. This is the fundamental law for all citizens of our Free Democracy.

BAKER, CHARLOTTE, *Sunrise Island*. New York 17: David McKay Co. 1952. 158 pp. \$2.75. The story of this book takes place somewhere on the coast of North America north of Puget Sound, some time during the long years before the coming of the white men. Eagle, Young Slave, the Kelp Rocks Chief, and the other characters in the story were members of the vigorous Northwest Coast Indian tribes whose lives were lived as much on the water as on the land. The story tells something of their work, their play, and their relationship to the Spirits.

BECKER, M. L. *Presenting Miss Jane Austen*. New York 16: Dodd, Mead and Co. 1952. 220 pp. \$3.00. Jane Austen's life at Steventon Parsonage, her brief adventure at school and her real education at home, family theatricals in the barn with her cousin, the Countess from the Court of France, as leading lady—all these are in this "book for beginners" at any age; so are the dances and dresses of a pretty young lady moving in good society, and the excursions with her sister Cassandra; so are her

"nameless, dateless" romance, the first lighthearted parody composed for fireside entertainment, the writing and re-writing of the novels that went round the world.

BOYD, J. P., Editor. *The Papers of Thomas Jefferson*. Princeton, N. J.: Princeton University Press. 1950. 739 pp. \$10.00. This book, "the richest treasure-house of historical information ever left by a single man," is to be a 52-volume series including not only the 18,000 letters written by Jefferson but also, in full or in summary, the more than 25,000 letters written to him. Also included will be Jefferson's public papers and all other writings on subjects as diverse as political philosophy and scientific agriculture. The editors have conceived their assignment to be preparation of a series which will stand for all time as the most nearly definitive edition that is feasible. No previous edition has included more than 15 per cent of the total, and only about a fifth of the documents have ever been published anywhere.

A group of about 40 volumes will form a chronological series of the correspondence and most of the public papers. These will be followed by approximately 10 volumes of special writings on particular subjects such as law, farm and garden, wine and cookery, architecture. A comprehensive 2-volume index will be added.

Among the fresh contributions made by the documents in Volume 1, which covers the years 1760-1776, are the following; new light on the Declaration of Independence, hitherto unpublished material; full assessment of the part played by Jefferson in the drafting of the Virginia Constitution; full presentation of his efforts in 1776 to dis-establish the Church of Virginia and to establish religious toleration; complete presentation of bills and statutes drawn by Jefferson in 1776 in the beginning of his great legislative reforms by which he hoped to "eradicate every fibre of aristocracy"; settlement of the disputed authorship of the Declaration of the Causes and Necessity for Taking Up Arms; and first publication of Jefferson's comments on Franklin's Plan of Union, 1775.

BRIDGE, ANN. *The Dark Moment*. New York 11: Macmillan Co. 1952. 337 pp. \$3.75. This is the story of two Turkish girls and a revolution. Fêridé and Nilüfer, accustomed to the elegance and protection of an old, aristocratic society, were suddenly forced—by their love for the men they had married—to become pioneers for the freedom of their countrywomen! The revolution, started by the sensational general Mustafa Kemal Atatürk, had swept their husbands into the fight for a new and modern Turkey, while Fêridé and Nilüfer were left behind. And so the two girls, escaping in coarse disguises from a palace overlooking the Bosphorus, made their hazardous way to Ankara to join their husbands.

BROCK, W. R. *Britain and The Dominions*. New York: Cambridge University Press. 1952. 546 pp. \$2.50. This book is the history of an idea. The unique concept of Dominion status within a Commonwealth of Nations is the outcome of the historic need for freedom combined with peace, for independence combined with a recognition of international obligations, for common action without centralized control. The attainment of these needs has come as the result of many conflicting forces which can only be studied historically; it is the purpose of this book to recount the ex-

periences of the different nations within the Commonwealth, and to explain how the past has led them into this unprecedented form of association.

The treatment of material varies somewhat in the different parts of the book. Part I is mainly an introductory narrative and is not intended for those who wish to devote special attention to early colonial history; considerable space, however, is devoted to the formulation of the British political tradition and to the economic ideas which dominated the old Colonial Empire. In Part II, an analytical treatment is used to describe the factors which moulded the creation of the new empire of the nineteenth century. In Part III, the histories of the various countries diverge more broadly and demand separate treatment; however, some of the new influences upon development—improved communications and the new imperialism of the late nineteenth century—are treated as single problems affecting the whole empire. In Part IV, the twentieth century, far more space is devoted to world affairs, there is some study of regional problems within the empire, while the problems of imperial relations and colonial development and welfare are once more treated as single problems affecting the empire as a whole. The book closes with short chapters descriptive of the societies which have evolved in what may, perhaps, be now called the old Dominions.

- BROD, MAX. *Unambo*. New York 3: Farrar, Straus and Young. 1952. 315 pp. \$3.00. This book is no simple tale. Battle scenes are in it, and accounts of heroism. But there are in it also all the strangenesses and maladies of the modern soul—tragic, self-seeking, towering egoism; wild and perverse eroticism. The movie star, Bianca Petry, whose glowing beauty is as synthetic as her enthusiasms for the new land, stands in contrast to the pure heroes of the war; the black-marketeers of Tel Aviv cast their shadow on the radiance of a people reborn. Out of the depth of the corrupt heart of man, Satan himself arises in a new, sophisticated guise. Yet the end is hope—a daring hope—for Israel and all men.
- BROWN, DEE (text), and SCHMITT, M. F. (picture research). *Trail Driving Days*. New York 17: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1952. 288 pp. \$7.50. In 229 photographs and a running text, the authors tell the history of those golden days of the long cattle drives. It begins with the evolution of the Longhorns from Spanish cattle brought to this country in 1521 and ends with the Great Blizzard of 1887 which virtually wiped out the greatest range herds in the world. Here is the story of the early cattle drives with cattle, horses, and men taking to the trails; sagas of the rip-roaring trail towns and the deputy marshals who came in to clean them up; the cattle wars and the hugh ranches; and the cowboy himself, very nearly as picturesque as the legends have made him. The pictures cover every aspect of the last days of the Old West. They show the cattle roundup outfits around the chuck wagons, the drivers in their newly bought hats, shirts, and boots.
- BURNS, EUGENE. *The Last King of Paradise*. New York 22: Pellegrini and Cudahy. 1952. 373 pp. \$4.00. In the exciting and colorful history of the Pacific, the story of the last king of Hawaii stands out as one of the most thrilling and romantic. David Kalakaua was born at a time of conflict. By the 19th century Hawaii had become the crossroads of the world. Traders came from Russia, Spain, England, America, and France to exchange whiskey for pigs, gingham for fish, pink parasols for sex. Missionaries came, but much of the good they might have done was destroyed

by tens of thousands of drinking whalers who wintered in the islands. The Hawaiian aristocracy adopted western ways and beautiful Polynesian women drove through the streets of Honolulu in London surreys and codded French poodles in the skirts of their Paris gowns.

CARR, C. C. *Alcoa, An American Enterprise*. New York 16: Rinehart and Co. 1952. 304 pp. \$3.50. This is the story of the achievements of the Aluminum Company of America and of Charles Martin Hall who at the age of twenty-two solved a problem that had been baffling scientists for three quarters of a century. His achievement turned a small company of young visionaries into one of the world's greatest corporations. The history of Alcoa is similar in many ways to that of other great American industries. Here is the story of a company from its pioneering mill plant days in the late 80's to the present.

CARROLL-ABBING, J. P. *A Chance to Live*. New York 3: Longmans, Green and Co. 1952. 224 pp. \$3.00. Hundreds of thousands of children were homeless, hungry, and destitute throughout the world during and after the last war. Banding together these boys and girls lived on the streets, sleeping in railroad stations, barely able to keep themselves alive. Here is an interesting story of the lost children of the war and what is being done for many of them.

CATTON, BRUCE. *Glory Road*. Garden City, N. Y.: Doubleday and Co. 1952. 416 pp. \$4.50. In those critical months between the autumn of 1862 and midsummer of the following year, the eventual outcome of the Civil War was determined by the Army of the Potomac. After a bloody massacre at Fredericksburg, an aimless and muddy march up and down the banks of the Rappahannock, and a catastrophe of confusion at Chancellorsville, this army took a firm stand on the hills to the west of a small Pennsylvania town called Gettysburg and finally turned the fortunes of war against the Confederacy.

Here is the exciting story of this Army of the Potomac, of the people in it, and of the nation it defended. Of enlistees, volunteers, and bounty men alike, who fought like fiends during each engagement but swapped coffee and tobacco with the rebels between skirmishes. And of three generals in command during this crucial period: Burnside, "who meant so well and did so badly"; Hooker, a soldier's soldier who improved rations but was surprised into a disastrous defeat; and Meade, who took over only three days before the decisive battle of Gettysburg.

CHAMPION, S. G., and SHORT, DOROTHY. *Readings from World Religions*. Boston 6: Beacon Press. 1951. 344 pp. \$3.75. This book is an introduction to the eleven living religions of the world. Each is presented simply and objectively—for the purpose of providing information, not for winning converts. First comes an introduction to each religion, giving its main doctrines and systems, together with an account of the life of the founder, where one existed. These sections were written by Dorothy Short. This is followed by a selection of short extracts and longer passages from the scriptures of each religion, provided by Dr. Champion.

CILETTI, L. J. *Youth on Trial*. Washington, Pa.: Better the World Press. 1950. 272 pp. \$3.75. To school and libraries, 1 to 4 copies, \$3.25 each; and 5 or more copies, \$3.10 each. This is a collection of 153 essays selected from 3000 written by Pennsylvania high-school youth on the subject "What You Can Do Today to Better the World." Here are youth's

answers and ideas as to what they believe will contribute to better world understanding. No words are wasted as they probe into the ills and evils of the crucial present and plan their blueprints for that tomorrow for which they will be responsible. They are not parroting what adults think nor are they fearful that what they say may offend—they speak forth with wisdom, sincerity, and earnestness. And as one reads what they say, he is convinced by the straightforwardness of their statements that they not only are aware of the almost overwhelming problems confronting the world today but they are also cognizant of ways in which these problems can be resolved. As one reads these expressions, pessimism fades into optimism and one sees in these youth an energy and a fearlessness that will bring about a world in which future generations will live in peace and happiness. Here is a group of essays that will not only be an inspiration to youth themselves but to adults as well. Included also in the book are a foreword and an introduction giving the story of how the book was made possible, the Declaration of Independence, Lincoln's Gettysburg Address and his Second Inaugural Address, pictures of American and Pennsylvania history, short histories of the Pennsylvania communities in which these 153 high-school students live, the story of Rome Boys Town in Italy, and a Memorial Day Address by the person who had the vision and the ability to interest these 3,000 boys and girls to give thought to and write about this important topic.

CLAUSEN, C. A., and ELVIKEN, ANDREAS, Editors. *A Chronicle of Old Muskego*. Northfield, Minn.: Norwegian-American Historical Association. 1951. 259 pp. \$3.50. Few immigrant settlements—and none in Norwegian-American annals—have provoked more historical interest than "Old Muskego" in southeastern Wisconsin, yet the basic record of that germinal colony has not been available hitherto in translation. This record—the diary of Soren Bache, 1839–1847—is now published for the first time in English. Here is a contemporary document, with dated entries, by a man who not only was on the scene but occupied a leading role in the Muskego community. His diary is, in the main, a faithful record of first-hand observation and experience—a genuine "historical source."

CLEMENSON, J. W., and LA PORTE, W. R. *Your Health and Safety*. New York 17: Harcourt, Brace and Co. 1952. 544 pp. \$3.32. This third edition has been written to provide the latest information and tested teaching devices for an adequate high-school course in health and safety. To achieve this purpose, the content has been entirely reorganized, brought up to date, and rewritten to bear on the student's daily life. Study aids have been sharpened and improved to help the student make immediate use of what he has read.

The content is now centered around eight units which individually and together help young people build a healthful pattern by which to live. Students learn how: (1) to understand themselves and their problems; (2) to present a good personal appearance; (3) to keep their bodies functioning in a healthful manner; (4) to plan for themselves an adequate and satisfying diet; (5) to strengthen self-direction through an understanding of the way the nervous system works; (6) to develop healthy personalities; (7) to share in the community's work of preventing communicable and organic diseases; and (8) to prevent serious accidents to themselves and to others in the home, at school, and on the highway. Throughout the

book, an effort has been made to stress the "whole" approach to health. This means that the mental and physical are not considered as separate aspects of health. Rather, health is conceived of as a composite of mental, physical, emotional, social, and ethical forces, all of which together determine the health and maturity of the individual.

COKER, E. B. *The Day of the Peacock*. New York 10: E. P. Dutton Co. 1952. 320 pp. \$3.00. Here are conflicts between the old and the new ways of life and work, where the great fortunes founded upon cotton and tobacco are seen in a battle to the death. In this book the battle of the old, lazy, easy ways against the modern, highly mechanized, strongly unionized life is heightened by the passions which are loosed among men and women in their struggle for wealth, power, and love.

CONDIT, C. W. *The Rise of the Skyscraper*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press. 1952. 267 pp. \$5.00. The building boom in Chicago that followed the great fire of 1871 fast became an aesthetic revolution. Chicago was suddenly the leader in an architectural renaissance which was to leave its mark on the cities of the world. For in the space of a quarter-century, stone masonry, with its age-old limitations, was triumphantly replaced by the steel skeleton of the world's first skyscraper. This book presents and evaluates the contribution of the "Chicago School," not only in modern techniques, but in the creation of a new building form as well. The author describes what are now historic achievements: the Home Insurance Building, the Rookery, the Monadnock, the Auditorium, the Ashland Block, the Second Leiter, and the Gage, Tacoma, and Reliance buildings.

CRAWFORD, MARION. *Elizabeth the Queen*. New York 11: Prentice-Hall. 1952. 236 pp. \$2.95. This book is the story of Britain's new queen. Brought up to date, this memoir covers Queen Elizabeth's life, including her Canadian tour, visit to America and the brief African expedition, up to the awesome moment when, with the sad news of her father's sudden death, came the realization that she was now England's new sovereign. Added are a section of brief biographies of the English Queens who preceded Elizabeth II, as well as lists of England's rulers and genealogical charts.

CREALOCK, W. I. B. *Vagabonding Under Sail*. New York 22: Hastings House. 1951. 318 pp. \$5.00. A coincidence brought together four young Englishmen who had individually dreamed of setting out for distant waters in a small boat. Together these four were able to make that dream come true, and they exchanged a life of office routine for one of vagabonding on the sea; a three-year odyssey in a forty-foot cutter, from the coasts of Spain and Portugal to Gibraltar, Tangier, ports of French Morocco, the Canaries; after that a three-thousand mile leg across the Atlantic to British Guiana and the innumerable Caribbean Isles; with a final northward stretch to the topless towers of Manhattan.

CRONIN, A. J. *Adventures in Two Worlds*. New York 36: McGraw-Hill Book Co. 1952. 351 pp. \$4.00. In this book the author relives the most dramatic and meaningful episodes of his own life. The author has had two careers, both of them immensely successful. In his early years he was a physician in Scotland, Wales, and London. Later, when he made the difficult decision to abandon his practice, he became world-famous as the author of such novels as *Hatter's Castle*, *The Citadel*, *The Keys of the Kingdom*,



and *The Green Years*. This book, the author's first book of nonfiction, is a fusion of his experiences in the fields of medicine and literature, told in narrative form.

- DANGERFIELD, GEORGE. *The Era of Good Feelings*. New York 17: Harcourt, Brace and Co. 1952. 539 pp. \$6.00. "The Era of Good Feelings" is the name traditionally given to the eight years of the presidency of James Monroe (1817 to 1825). There is reason to believe it was appropriate to at least the first two of them. The United States had won a war, or thought it had; the country was in a period of soaring nationalism; and there was only one national political party. The era was unprecedented and it was brief. But the larger period of which it was the hinge was a time of significant change. It marked the transition from Jeffersonian philosophy to Jacksonian philosophy: from the great dictum that central government is best when it governs least to the great dictum that central government must sometimes intervene strongly in behalf of the weak and the oppressed and the exploited.

The book begins with a discussion of the problems that confronted the American commissioners at Ghent, as they strove to make a good peace with Great Britain in the fall and winter of 1814, when the United States seemed to be fighting for its very life. It gives the background for the nationalism that applauded and upheld James Monroe when he first became president; and describes the beginning of a change in Anglo-American relations that was to have a most stimulating effect upon the United States in the years that followed. The events and maneuvers that culminated in the formulation of the Monroe Doctrine in 1823 are here described in relation to the events and personalities on the world stage, and a crucial and neglected period is brought into new and vivid focus.

- DAVIS, I. C.; BURNETT, JOHN; GROSS, E. W. *Science*. (Revised). New York 10: Henry Holt and Co. 1952. 576 pp. \$3.44. This is a textbook for the ninth-grade general-science course that teaches the *what*, the *how*, and the *why*. The *what* (a topic) is introduced by using a familiar example. For instance, two boys make a raft and know that wood floats—but how? Then follow pupil activities and demonstrations to show *what* happens—and *how*. Finally, the activities or demonstrations are explained by giving enough simple and clear interpretation so the student can reason *why*. The book is organized on 19 large problems, based on a special division of subject matter. Each large problem is then subdivided into specific ones, based on smaller divisions of subject matter. There is a gradual development from unit to unit based on difficulty, possibility of demonstration, growth of interest, and seasonal use of material. The 10 problems or units included are: (1) How has man learned to use the materials and forces of nature?; (2) How has man learned to use air pressure?; (3) How has man learned the nature and uses of fire?; (4) How has man learned to heat and air-condition his home?; (5) How has man learned the causes of changes in weather and climate?; (6) How has man learned to keep his water pure and himself clean?; (7) How has man learned to use water for transportation and machines?; (8) How has man learned to use the sky to tell time and direction?; (9) How has man learned the nature and uses of light?; (10) How has man learned the nature of sound and music?; (11) How has man learned to use magnetism and electricity?;

(12) How has man learned to send words and pictures long distances?; (13) How has man learned to use machines to help him do work?; (14) has man learned to use metals and machines for power?; (15) How has man learned the nature and uses of chemicals?; (16) How has man learned to use the soil and keep it fertile?; (17) How has man learned to grow plants and use them in daily life?; (18) How has man learned to increase his knowledge of his body?; and (19) How has man learned the nature and causes of decay and disease?

The text is accompanied by a teacher's manual. Part 1 tells how the textbook was planned and how its materials were selected and organized. Part 2 suggests ways of teaching the book, offering a wide choice of methodology. Part 3 outlines daily lesson assignments and furnishes additional teaching helps, together with answers to all the questions in the text. Included also are: lively activities and exercises geared to the textbook and covering each of the nineteen units; a wide variety of charts and drill materials to help pupils check their rate of progress; complete answers to all the activities and exercises; a complete testing program covering the material in the textbook and directed study guide; and a key to the mastery tests.

DEWITT, W. A. *Drinking and What to Do About It*. New York 10: Grosset and Dunlap. 1952. 186 pp. \$2.00. Here is a report to the American people on all major aspects of the liquor problem—written in laymen's terms but reflecting the most recent medical and sociological opinion on the subject. Taking the position the vast majority of Americans are neither confirmed alcoholics nor ardent prohibitionists, the author gives a reasoned—and often witty—account of the impact of alcohol on our customs and morals.

DICKSON, MARGUERITE. *Only Child*. New York 3: Longmans, Green and Co. 1952. 247 pp. \$2.50. This story is full of the things girls like best to read about—tangled human relationships, complications at home and at school and romance, with the chance for the reader to identify herself with one of the girls wrestling with personality problems. Gwen, an only child for whom life has been easy and pleasant, must share her home with two cousins. She finds herself with a rival in Philippa, the older girl, whose competence and good looks help her quickly to establish herself in Gwen's family and assure her popularity in Gwen's own high school. After a difficult year of adjustments, Gwen learns to see herself in a new light, finds a field in which she too can excel, her own special boy companion, and a way of living more happily with herself and with others.

DOUGLAS, M. S. *Road to the Sun*. New York 16: Rinehart and Co. 1952. 340 pp. \$3.50. Here is a novel about Florida by a woman who is known to thousands for her writings about this land and its vivid people. The growth of Miami is a rich, colorful, dramatic episode in our history. It was America booming, brawling, loving, and working to get somewhere. But sometimes it left its people behind. In telling this dual drama of Jason and Ellen and the city they helped build and almost destroy, the author has told more than a story of a region; it is America she has described.

DOUGLASS, H. R.; KINNEY, L. B.; and RUBLE, VINCENT. *Everyday Mathematics*. New York 10: Henry Holt and Co. 1951. 504 pp. \$2.48. In this general mathematics for grade nine or ten, the first four chapters review the fundamentals (whole numbers, decimals, fractions, and per

cents). It is a step-by-step reteaching by concrete example, by intensive drill, and by skill put to work in solving practical problems. At each step, the student sees how many life situations demand competence in mathematics. Besides this review in the first four chapters, inventory tests on whole number, fractions, decimals, and per cents are strategically placed throughout the book. The other chapters are: Managing Earnings Wisely, Individual and Group Security, Mathematics in Government, Mathematics in Measurement, Using Mathematics in Providing a Home, Using Triangles, and Using Formulas and Equations. Each chapter starts with a photograph and questions about it to motivate study, to increase the student's powers of observation, and to show him what the chapter will teach him. There are also such interesting sections as Words To Remember which may be used as a pre-test of significant words in the chapter; A Problem Scale which reminds students of the six steps in problem-solving, and gives them an opportunity to see whether they are using them effectively through practice on consumer problems; Special Projects which employ out-of-school time and materials to increase mathematical awareness; and Hurdles, a chapter-end test, measuring the students' mastery of each chapter in skills, vocabulary, information, and problem-solving.

DOWDEY, CLIFFORD. *Jasmine Street*. Garden City, N. Y.: Doubleday and Co. 1951. 415 pp. \$3.95. This is a novel, tracing through the spiritual pilgrimage of Paul Carrick, the story of America during the past fifty years. In January 1900, Paul was born into a shabbily genteel family residing in a small southern city. His mother was ambitious for her son and, over the protests of a rough, explosive husband, moved successively to Jasmine Street and finally to the fashionable Square. In these locations, Paul spent a happy, uncomplicated childhood, made the school football team, and learned the facts of life, all in the faraway age of Gibson Girl drawings, Alger books, and Sunday excursions to the end of the trolley line. At the age of nineteen he returned from France, where he had witnessed the death of his favorite teacher. He commenced a career of art with an architectural firm, and hoped soon to marry Julie, but she was born to the flapper age and danced away with another man. Helped by the friends of his youth, he became a partner in a small printing company and met and married Dorothy Gail. She was intelligent, attractive, and also a graduate of the New York carousel of the twenties, and together they faced the crises of debt, death, and neuroticism in themselves and in their associates.

DU MAURIER, DAPHNE. *My Cousin Rachel*. Garden City, N. Y.: Doubleday and Co. 1952. 348 pp. \$3.50. This novel is the portrait of an enigmatic woman—a novel that has been a best seller since its publication.

DUNSHEE, K. H. *As You Pass By*. New York 22: Hastings House. 1952. 278 pp. \$10.00. This is a story that will appeal not only to the New Yorker but also to all lovers of Americana no matter where they live. It is the story of Old New York—its citizens, its fire horses and firemen, its vanished neighborhoods and towns, its water courses and streets—all presented in a story of the past that forms a background of the character, appearance, and surge of New York as it is today. Here in picture and text one makes a trip to such past sights as the Castle Garden, the Corner of

Greenwich Street in 1810, John Street in 1768, the Old North Dutch Church, City Hall in 1826, Broadway in 1834, and all the other many places and events that not only have been important in the history of New York City but also have had their influence upon the entire United States.

*Education for Safety Through the School Shop.* New York: Association of Casualty and Surety Companies. 1952. 117 pp. This book's purpose is to help the school shop teacher to integrate safety into his course material. This objective complies with the educationally sound procedure of developing in the students of today the habits that will permit them to take a useful place in the world of tomorrow. The book is organized so as to permit the teacher to identify and select the pertinent accident prevention information readily. This is accomplished by outlining the material ordinarily taught in the more common shop courses. For each operation requiring safety precautions, in behalf of the worker or the equipment, the preventive measures are in bold type. This will permit easy recognition of the parts of the book dealing specifically with safety. Such presentation enables the instructor to integrate the subject of safety into his course effectively. Experienced industrial arts and vocational education teachers have assisted with the preparation of the materials.

While the book is designed for teachers of industrial arts, it is also intended for teachers of vocational education. No attempt has been made to cover specialized courses such as leather working, textile weaving, ceramics, etc. A survey was made of the secondary-school shops throughout the country and only those subjects common to all have been included.

EVANS, MARY. *Better Clothes for Your Money.* Philadelphia 5: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1952. 224 pp. \$2.95. This book tells how to determine quality in clothes, and how to get better value dollar for dollar. The author, who has been professor of home economics at Teachers College, Columbia University, for thirty-five years, is an expert who has put her knowledge at the service of the consumer. Part I gives general information about different kinds of stores; the best seasons to buy; factors determining prices; labels; characteristics of yarns, fibers, weaves, knitted fabrics, and finishes; and what signs indicate well-made clothes. Part II is an alphabetical guide to apparel and accessories, from bathing suits to vests, including children's clothing, furs, gloves, belts, umbrellas, hats, men's suits, and maternity clothes. There is expert advice on how furs are tailored and how to buy them with the greatest saving. There are many pointers on exactly how various items of clothing are put together—from gloves to suits—and how to detect inferior workmanship.

EVANS, W. A. *Everyday Safety.* Chicago: Lyons and Carnahan. 1952. 315 pp. The text has been written in simple, easy, understandable language, and it offers strengthening rationalization at those points where rationalization is needed. Attitudes and ideals are developed throughout. The text has been arranged in chapters in order to enable students and teachers to concentrate upon a co-ordinated series of safety activities that relate and lead to the fulfillment of the desirable outcomes. Aids are included at the end of each unit, entitled, "For Further Study and Discussion." These have been planned as an integral part of the whole program. Tests in varied forms have been provided at strategic points. The illustrations are planned to make a direct contribution to the textual material.

GARST, SHANNON. *Wild Bill Hickok*. New York 18: Julian Messner Inc. 1952. 191 pp. \$2.75. This is a story of one of the most turbulent periods in American history, when men of courage fought to establish law and order and when a six-shooter was the only understandable language. Most fearless of these men was Wild Bill Hickok, stage driver for the great Santa Fe freight caravans, Overland Stage boss, Indian fighter. During the Civil War, he joined the Union forces as dispatch rider and scout and was highly acclaimed by General Freeman for his reckless bravery. He thrived on danger and learned at an early age, when he helped his father hide runaway slaves, that liberty and freedom were man's most prized possessions, and for these he was willing to fight or die. But he believed also in justice and law and order, and when he was made Marshall of Hayes and Abilene, two of the toughest towns on the frontier, outlaws, derelicts, big-time gamblers learned to respect this man of iron will who fought them with courage and honor.

*Golden Ages of the Great Cities*. New York 17: David McKay Co. (distributors of Thames and Hudson books). 1952. 360 pp. \$5.00. Here is the story of western civilization told in terms of those great cities which have played the most important part in its development: Athens in the age of Pericles; Rome under the Antonines; Constantinople in the year A.D. 1000; Medieval Paris; Florence of the Medici; Venice of the Doges; Madrid under the House of Austria; Rome of the Popes; Paris and Versailles in the *Grand Siecle*; Vienna under Metternich; Jubilee London; and Twentieth Century New York. These famous cities, together with the customs, beliefs, and way of life of the people whose achievements have made them pre-eminent in history, are described in a series of essays which depict them as they were in their Golden Age, when they represented the flower of Western culture.

GOSS, MADELEINE. *Modern Music-Makers*. New York 10: E. P. Dutton and Co. 1952. 499 pp. \$10.00. The contemporary American composer, and his contribution to the growing repertoire of serious music is the subject of this book. Arranged in chronological order of birth, this book starts with Charles Ives, the oldest in years but in many respects the most "modern," and includes John Alden Carpenter, Louis Gruenberg, Deems Taylor, Walter Piston, William Grant Still, Aaron Copland, Roy Harris and Lucas Foss, to name but a few of the thirty-seven composers covered.

There is a photograph of each composer, manuscript specimens of the compositions of each, a complete profile study of the composer, his background, his music and development. There is also a chart of the important events in each composer's life, as well as a complete, personally verified checklist of each artist's compositions. The biographical material is rich in references, comments, personal credos of the composers, quotations, critical comments, and enlightening commentary on the technical aspects of many of the compositions. This book is also a treasure house of anecdotes concerning the great of the musical world, memorable performances, and intimate personal vignettes.

GOVAN, G. E., and LIVINGOOD, J. W. *The Chattanooga Country 1540-1951*. New York 10: E. P. Dutton and Co. 1952. 509 pp. \$5.00. The country around Chattanooga, Tennessee, played an important part in the Western movement of the population during the early days of American history. It

was the border country of the southeastern states at the time of the Revolution. It was one of the first industrial centers of the South. More recently, with the creation of the TVA, it became one of the vital power plants of the nation. The authors have written a serious, but flavorful, history of the country around Chattanooga from 1540 through 1951. As a center of international intrigue and a flaming border in Revolutionary days, Chattanooga commanded the attention of such men as Col. Evan Shelby and Col. John Sevier. Here is Chattanooga as the closest neighbor of the Cherokee Nation—the amazing Indian republic, a country within a country, that produced that remarkable leader, Sequoyah. Chattanooga is also shown as a budding transportation center of the 19th century, a river port and gateway between the Mississippi Valley and the Southwest. Few sections of the country went through more stormy days during the Civil War period. A different society from the Plantation South and the surrounding country, Chattanooga had many Union sympathizers—a situation that created much local strife. That crucial battle, Chickamauga, was fought in the mountains above the city. Here the names of Generals Grant, Thomas, Bragg, Rosecrans, and others acquired a local and personal significance.

GRAHAM, A. P. *Great Bands of America*. New York 17: Thomas Nelson and Sons. 1951. 185 pp. \$2.00. When "Joshua fit the battle of Jericho," he marched around the walls with what might be called an early small military band. Military bands have a long and exciting history in America, with many brilliant leaders and composers of stirring band music. But great military bands have not alone carried on our grand tradition. *The Stars and Stripes Forever* brings to mind the famous John Philip Sousa; *On the Mall* brings to mind another scene—warm summer evenings under the stars with Edwin Franco Goldman, or other park concerts by municipal bands. Another great contribution to the development of bands in America was made by the Salvation Army bands; we remember street playing on Sunday evenings, and the call to faith and brotherhood. High-school and college bands call to mind the colorful scenes of football, and the stirring ones of graduation and love for Alma Mater. Here is a pageant of America, a side of us that is stirring, beautiful, and very much our own.

GREER, J. K. *Colonel Jack Hays*. New York 10: E. P. Dutton and Co. 1952: 428 pp. \$6.00. All but unbelievable are the nearly incredible feats of bravery and endurance of Colonel Jack Hays, that greatest of all Texas Rangers, fabulous Indian fighter, and pioneer in the building of California. However, every fact has been verified and fully documented, with everything adding up to the undeniable fact that Colonel Jack Hays, 1817-1883, was in every way an exceptional man. John Coffee Hays, to give him his full, if seldom used name, was a soldier, explorer, surveyor, Ranger, officer in the Mexican War, and one of the most vital men among those who maintained the Republic of Texas and who helped to make it a part of the United States. Needing new worlds to conquer, Hays left San Antonio for the Gila River country, there to head an Indian agency. Later he went on to California, where he was variously a sheriff, Federal surveyor general, and town planner, after which he entered a long period as gentleman rancher and capitalist, exercising a great political influence. His name heads the long list of those who created the undying tradition of the Texas Rangers.

- GRIFFITH, E. R. *National Anthems*. Boston: Christopher Publishing House. 1952. 59 pp. \$1.50. Here is a source book of seven of the most stirring National Anthems, with much colorful data on their origins, histories of their composers, and the fiery patriotism that prompted these hymns, which after so many years, still ring and instill in the hearts of the different nations, life, courage, and determination. They also express many of the outstanding characteristics of the different nationalities. Inspired by the United Nations in their attempt to stop by force the aggression of the North Koreans in June 1950, the author pays tribute to the first seven nations to appear on the scene, by narrating their national anthems: "The Star Spangled Banner"—The United States; "Tong Hai Main"—Korea; "God Save The King"—England; "Advance, Australia Fair"—Australia; "The Maple Leaf Forever"—Canada; "The Marseillaise"—France; and "We Gather Together to Ask the Lord's Blessing"—Netherlands.
- GRIFFITH, MAXWELL. *Port of Call*. Philadelphia 5: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1952. \$3.50. This is a story of navy life for three days on and off a re-activated American aircraft carrier in a Cuban port after the war. Those who have enjoyed *The Caine Mutiny* and *The Cruel Sea* will also find this novel equally appealing.
- HAHN, EMILY. *Love Conquers Nothing*. Garden City, N. Y.: Doubleday and Co. 1952. 315 pp. \$3.75. The author relates the unusual stories of Queen Marie Françoise of Portugal, who found it politically expedient to switch husbands in mid-reign, with little long-term effect on that nation; of the Konigsmarks, Swedish-German soldiers of fortune, whose affairs of the heart could have changed the whole pattern of English history; and Lady Emma Hamilton, whose career provides stimulating reading, but whose mark on the naval prowess of her lover came to nil. And then there is the strange case of Flora Hastings; the plight of this unfortunate woman might have precipitated the marriage of Queen Victoria—but probably did not. In a highly original and entertaining treatise on the true causes and effects of such highly publicized romances as those of Cleopatra with Caesar and Antony, of Henry VIII and his harem, and many others, the author offers fact combined with supposition to prove that "Love seldom conquers anything; it only makes a mess of arrangements once in a while and for a little time."
- HART, W. W., and SCHULT, VERYL. *Solid Geometry*. Boston 16: D. C. Heath and Co. 1952. 208 pp. \$2.04. This book, while based on time-tested and approved textbooks on the same subject by the senior author, is a new organization of the fundamental theorems of the subject. It furnishes a course in which formal demonstrations are somewhat reduced and in which applications of the mensuration theorems of solid geometry are emphasized, as requested by many schools and colleges. The basic course in this textbook, designed for schools that desire an abbreviated treatment of the formal demonstrations in solid geometry, gives only informal proofs for some theorems that in the past have been demonstrated more fully and omits altogether those theorems and exercises that are marked by asterisks or designated as being optional. It is a reduced basic course, but contains all the mensuration theorems for common solids.
- HAWKES, JACQUETTA. *A Land*. New York 22: Random House. 1951. 248 pp. \$3.75. The author has applied her learning and sensibility to an in-



terpretation of Man's relationship with Nature which is as informed with knowledge as it is inspired with love. She writes of geology and the way in which geological evolution is linked with the emergence of life and then of consciousness. She shows how remote geological events determined the lines of human settlement and the ways in which, subsequently, land and people acted and reacted one upon the other. On the scientific aspects of these phenomena, she brings her imagination to bear so as to suggest in a single image the creation of a country and a people. The author's country is Great Britain, but the truths she discloses are universal.

HENN, T. R. *The Lonely Tower*. New York 22: Pellegrini and Cudahy. 1951. 382 pp. \$5.00. This book is a definitive study of William Butler Yeats. In this book the poet's work is considered from three aspects. *First*, the author discusses the influence of the Easter Rising of 1916 and the passing of a civilization in Ireland during the 1920's—both experiences of prime importance, since Yeats always viewed Ireland as a microcosm of the larger world. *Second*, there is an examination, going to the roots of Yeats' poetic thinking, of that controversial work, *A Vision*, in both its versions. *Third*, there is a consideration of Yeats' debt to painters, an investigation which grew out of a study of his references to picture galleries and artists. This study reveals that a number of images of the later poetry are directly related to particular paintings. Throughout the book are a number of analyses of individual poems, particularly from the later periods, and these are related to Yeats' diaries and letters. The unity and progression of his work and the interrelation of poetry, drama, and prose are emphasized.

HESS, MAX, JR. *Every Dollar Counts*. New York 3: Fairchild Publications. 1952. 166 pp. \$2.50. How to get the most for your department store dollar, a subject that is of vital concern to every shopper today, is the underlying theme of this book. The reader is taken on a tour through a typical department store. The author, as conductor of the tour, familiarizes the reader with all of the behind-the-scenes activities of the operation (he claims that 75 per cent of the functions of a great store are never seen by the casual customer). He tells the customer how to recognize a bargain when she sees one, and makes her aware of the methods used by a store to lure her into buying. He explains the general purposes of promotion and display; how basement goods are sold so cheaply in relation to the upstairs merchandise; why a department store can undersell small shops even with its higher markup; how some phases of its operation can be conducted at a loss and still make money for the store as a whole. He reveals the difference between "specials" and "clearances" and what is meant by "copying down."

HOBART, A. T. *The Serpent-Wreathed Staff*. Indianapolis 7: Bobbs-Merrill Co. 1951. 403 pp. \$3.50. The author has created a group of complex, passionate people, involved in intense conflict with one another and within themselves, who demand and permit the full sweep of her talent as a dramatic storyteller. These people live to their complete capacity—live dangerous, beset but usually rewarding lives—and what happens to them becomes immensely important to the reader. Her continuing interest is in the collision of change with the existing order and the powerful forces supporting it. For the specific collision of this book she has

selected one of the most controversial problems now in debate in the forum of public opinion: the relation of the medical profession to society, almost every aspect of this relationship.

- HOFFMAN, M. D. *Readings in Democracy*. New York 10: Globe Book Co. 1952. 383 pp. Part I of this book provides material through which the student will become aware of democracy in the experiences of everyday life. The principles of democracy are brought home in concrete terms instead of abstractions. Implied is a basic adjustment of the individual to his fellow man and to society as a whole. There is an emotional as well as an intellectual conditioning of the individual to face situations he may find around him. Democracy is approached first as a way of life rather than as a set of political, economic, or social principles. The pupil learns through colorful stories, radio scripts, and playlets, and through accounts of the experiences of others, that each individual helps to create or to destroy a democratic society by the way he lives, by his behavior in relation to those with whom he comes in contact.

With this realization, he has presented to him, in Part II, his heritage of freedom and the evolving problems of democracy throughout American history. The selections are essentially the literature of American democracy, the famous utterances of our great statesmen and historians from the early days of the founding fathers to the present time. Part III considers Democracy as a faith to live by. It stresses the ideals and spiritual elements which evoke our loyalty and make us dedicate our lives to the great cause.

- HOROWITZ, CAROLINE. *The Boy's Handbook of Play Ideas and Things-To-Do*, and *The Girl's Handbook of Play Ideas and Things-To-Do*. New York 16: Hart Publishing Co. 1951. 96 pp. each. \$1.00 each. Each of these books presents games which develop manual co-ordination and offers a wide range of interests for boys and girls between the ages of 9 and 13. *The Boy's Handbook*, among other things, describes how to make a kite, a helicopter, a book cover, a bulletin board, a canteen, puppets, and a dog-leash; while *The Girl's Handbook*, describes how to make a book plate, folding fan, greeting cards, lapel doll, sachet, puppet theatre, and paper flowers. Wherever the project requires a series of steps in construction, each step is individually illustrated. Each of these books contain both quiet games and active games which may be played by groups. Teachers will find in these books many suggestions for group activities which may be played indoors as well as out of doors.

- EL HULT, RUBY. *Steamboats in the Timber*. Caldwell, Idaho: Caxton Printers, Ltd. 1951. 209 pp. \$4.00. In this history of steamboating days on Lake Coeur d'Alene there is an opportunity to look backward upon a busy, gay, and interesting period in the development of the Northwest. Steamboats were once used more extensively on Lake Coeur d'Alene than on any lake, salt or fresh, west of the Great Lakes. They brought ore from gold, silver, and lead mines; lumber from the forests; fish from the rivers; carried mail and Sears and Roebuck parcels to lonely homesteads; were loaded with cattle, wheat, potatoes, and other produce.

Not only were the boats used for commerce, but they were also used for pleasure. Perhaps the most entertaining portion of the book describes the bright holidays, when the steamboats were transformed into vessels of

festivity and revelry. Thousands of people from Spokane would crowd into the electric cars and flock to the banner-decorated boats. Joyous crowds would dance on deck; school children would have the "big day" of their lives; amorous couples would look dreamily upon the silken water of the lake as the steamboat trailed slowly homeward in the moonlight. The author, herself a native of the Coeur d'Alene country, gives to this history the special personal charm lent to facts reinforced by memories. A succinctly written account of Coeur d'Alene region's historical background furnishes a necessary setting, and a short history is given to the steamboats most important in the lake commerce.

- HYSLOP, LOIS, and FRANCIS E., JR. Translators and editors. *Baudelaire on Poe*. State College, Pa.: Bald Eagle Press. 1952. 175 pp. \$4.00. This book includes the critical papers written by the French poet Baudelaire translated into English. Following an introduction which tells of Baudelaire, his admiration for Poe, and about the various essays he wrote on Poe, the editors and translator included his writings about Poe, his life and work as published in 1852, and another published in 1856, and new notes on Poe as published in 1857. This is followed by Part Four: Critical Miscellany which contains Preface to Mesmeric Revelation, Preface to Berenice, Preface to the Philosophy of Furniture, Preface to the Raven, Postscript to Hans Pfaall, original Dedication to Mrs. Clemm, and the Translator's Note. Concluding the book are an appendix which lists Poe's works translated by Baudelaire and seven pages of notes.

- ILENA. *I Live Again*. New York 16: Rinehart and Co. 1952. 383 pp. \$4.00. When the great-granddaughter of Queen Victoria, and the daughter of Marie of Romania, a princess in her own right, is happy doing her own work in a modest suburban house in Newton, Massachusetts, this is unquestionably unique. This is the story of the adventure of a self-reliant princess whose escape from communist-dominated Romania ended in Boston. Here is the legendary pomp of European royalty, the story of a princess scrubbing floors and nursing her wounded countrymen. And as this spirited book of memories shows, Princess Ilena is also plucky. In this book, Ilena tells of her own country in the last war, of the advent of the Communists, of her adventurous effort to live with—or in spite of—them, of her eventual escape, and of the way in which she reached her present Massachusetts home by way of Argentina.

- JOCHEN, A. E., and SHAPIRO, BENJAMIN. *Vocational English*. New York: Globe Book Co. 1952. 171 pp. This book is designed to offer the vocational school pupil a two-fold advantage over the standard English textbook. First, both language and instructional material are simple and at times even colloquial. All of this material is well within the comprehension of the average student whose chief capabilities lie in fields other than English usage.

Second, practically everything in this book is slanted toward the pupil's effort in learning a trade. The illustrations, motivating materials, examples, and drill sentences all refer directly to his shop work. At the same time they attempt to review and emphasize principles learned in the shops. This book is designed to be practically self-teaching. The materials included, in addition to reading matter the teacher will wish to add, should cover one year's work.

JONAS, CARL. *Jefferson Selleck*. Boston 6: Little, Brown and Co. 1952. 319 pp. \$3.00. Dictating to a tape-recorder which his son, Tom, had given him for Christmas, Jeff Selleck begins to look back on his life. He tells about his first love, Helen Flanagan, who became his secretary and saved his business; and about Gertrude McCullough, who married him. He describes the big elk hunt in the Gunnison River country and his friendship with the cowboy, January. He relates how he came to be in charge of noise for Bob Taft at the '48 Republican Convention in Philadelphia, how he saved his son, Tom, from "itty, bitty" Dolores in New York City and how his daughter, Tinker, married successful George Manelle, the only man who could ever make her behave. He reveals how his partner, Jake Brawn, got tired of making auto horns and invented a guided missile, and what this meant to a man like himself who still belonged to and could only be at home in the pre-atomic world. After Jeff's death, Doc Crocker, his lifelong friend and physician, undertook to edit these memoirs despite certain objections on the part of Mrs. Selleck.

JONES, JAMES. *From Here to Eternity*. New York 17: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1952. 861 pp. \$4.50. The events of the novel occur in Hawaii during the months before Pearl Harbor. But the story might have happened anywhere, for its elements are the elements of life itself: courage, brutality, love—and above all the loneliness and separateness of the human being, the impossibility of ever touching, except momentarily, the soul of another. The principal figures of this book are Private Robert E. Lee Prewitt and First Sergeant Milton Anthony Warden. Prewitt, a good welterweight and a fine bugler, has transferred from a soft berth in the rear echelon to an infantry battalion because of his stubborn belief that a man has a right to go his own way. Warden is cynical, sardonic, and magnificently skilled in his trade of soldiering. These two men are in continual conflict and yet they have a deep bond—they are both Thirty-Year-Men, for whom the Regular Army is the heart and blood of life.

JOSEY, C. C. *Psychology and Successful Living*. New York 17: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1952. 423 pp. \$3.00. This book deals with the need of many young persons approaching adulthood deeply disturbed by social and personal problems, searching for the key to their own behavior, for the clearer understanding of what constitutes successful living. It outlines a course for high-school students which makes an important and difficult business, *growing up*, easier. Of the 17 chapters, the first, "The Application of Science to Living," deepens the reader's appreciation of psychology as a science and points up its importance to everyday living. The second, "The Subject Matter of Psychology," explains the concepts needed to understand psychology. The third, "Human Nature and How It Came To Be," gives an evolutionary setting to the human qualities upon which man's greatness depends. "Human Needs and Goals" and "Individual Differences" (chapters 4 and 5) hold many suggestions for the management of one's own life. The next seven chapters deal with the hazards and limits of capacities, and suggest how the student may increase his assets and reduce his liabilities. The remaining five chapters deal with adolescence, successful marriage, child care, delinquency, and democratic citizenship. Each chapter has a summary, exercises, and a glossary, and all chapters except the first are followed by a bibliography.

KIMBALL, D. S., Editor. *The Book of Popular Science*. New York 19: Grolier Society. 1952. 10 Volumes totaling 4,250 pages, 10,000 illustrations and 404 articles. Write to the publisher for the money saving offer to schools. After many months of effort on the part of Dr. Lawrence M. Levin and his associates, a greatly improved and revised printing of *The Book of Popular Science* is available. All ten volumes of this set have been thoroughly revised. A total of 880 new pages has been added.

The ten volumes are intended for those who have little or no training in science but who wish to acquire a better understanding of this scientific age. They cover every important field of science in thirteen groups: the universe, the earth, life, plant life, animal life, man, health, matter and energy, transportation and communication, industry, society, biographies, and household science. The chapters within each group follow a logical pattern. As each chapter is a complete unit in itself, the set lends itself to pleasant browsing as well as to an intensive study of a particular branch of science. There are over 10,000 pictures, maps, charts, and diagrams as aids to understanding. The latest scientific developments are included—atomic energy, the allergies, chemurgy, geriatrics, microfilming, penicillin, television, radar, rockets, and the like. Answers to thousands of questions are readily found by referring to the index which contains over 15,000 entries carefully geared to the needs of the non-scientific reader. This science encyclopedia offers an abundance of enrichment material for study needs, for group projects, and for recreational activities as the demands arise in the secondary-school classroom or in the library.

A few of the more striking revisions and innovations in *The Book of Popular Science* deserve close attention. It is worth while to emphasize some features of the Editorial Board's report on the latest printing. There have been several major changes in the organization of the set. The section called Power has been replaced by a new section called Matter and Energy. It covers the fields of chemistry, the "science of matter," and physics, the "science of energy." The inclusion of these sciences in a single group is in accord with modern doctrine, which emphasizes that matter and energy are really two aspects of the same phenomenon; it also reflects the increasingly close relations between chemistry and physics. The group called Commerce has been replaced by a new group called Transportation and Communication. This new group contains thirteen articles; of these, three are new and the other ten were taken from the section formerly entitled Power.

An Appendix, containing a wealth of miscellaneous information, has been added to the set. It includes (1) a complete list of the chemical elements, with appropriate symbols, atomic number, and atomic weights; (2) the periodic table, with a brief introduction; (3) weights and measures; (4) the metric system; (5) conversion tables for the metric system; (6) data on the sun, moon, and planets; (7) the signs of the zodiac; (8) the apparent magnitude of important stars and other heavenly bodies, with an introduction explaining the meaning of "apparent magnitude"; (9) astronomical facts and figures; (10) the Beaufort scale of wind velocities; (11) physical facts and figures; (12) a comparison of the Fahrenheit, Centigrade, and Reaumur thermometer scales; (13) a complete list of Nobel Prize winners in physics, chemistry, and medicine or physiology,

giving the name of each winner, his nationality and the specific contribution for which the Nobel Prize was awarded.

- KJELGAARD, JIM. *Fire-Hunter*. New York 11: Holiday House. 1952. 217 pp. \$2.50. This is a story of the days when saber-tooth tigers and woolly mammoths roamed the earth; when men lived in wandering bands and stalked their prey with spears and clubs; when fire was their greatest friend, and human hands and brains their only advantages over wild beasts. Hawk was the Chief Spear-Maker of his tribe. Moreover, he was young and curious, an observer and an experimenter. Abandoned by his fellow men, he courageously met the savage wilderness with constantly new ideas and weapons.
- KORDEL, LELORD. *Eat and Grow Younger*. Cleveland: World Publishing Co. 1952. 315 pp. \$3.00. If old age with its hardened arteries, diminishing energy and other depressing symptoms has seemed inevitable to you, this book will change the reader's mind. No one needs to grow old prematurely, says the author, and this new book on nutrition proves that old age can be postponed. Premature old age is a deficiency disease as real as pellagra or scurvy. People look and act old long before they should simply because they've been existing on an improper diet. The author's text tells why the wrong kind of diet can make people look older than they are. Then he provides them with an eat-and-grow-younger program, complete with sample diets and recipes, expressly planned to keep their vital organs healthy and in good repair. These recipes are appetizing and easy to prepare. Also included are sample diets for gaining and losing weight, and table of protein values for over 150 different common—and palatable—foods.
- KORNITZER, BELA. *American Fathers and Sons*. New York 10: Hermitage House. 1952. 316 pp. \$5.00. Americans honor their fathers and mothers but for some decades it has seemed that mothers were receiving the larger part of the credit. This book restores the balance and gives father his due. It reveals the democratic relationship of a number of famous Americans and their less famous fathers or less famous sons. In Europe, twelve years ago the author wrote a book on European fathers and sons that met with extraordinary success. Coming to America in 1946, he looked with fresh eyes at American fathers and sons and saw that the pattern was quite different here. In Europe, the family was father-dominated and authoritarian in pattern. Here, fathers and sons were more companionable. In fact, the American family was a mirror of democracy.
- KRUTCH, J. W. *The Desert Year*. New York 19: William Sloane Associates. 1952. 270 pp. \$3.75. Desert country casts a curious spell over the eyes and the minds of people who see it, as the author discovered when he went to spend a year in the American Southwest. The landscape, the colors, the animals, and the plants were all strange and different from his familiar Connecticut countryside—even the stars were a little different. Under the surface of this book, which is a report on the pattern of the desert world and its seasons, is the wise and often quizzical play of a mind which has learned that there is more joy in the way things are than in the way they might be.
- L'AMI, C. E. *The Green Madonna*. Philadelphia 7: Westminster Press. 1952. 302 pp. \$3.75. This is a story of fifteenth century England, in an era of

- adventure and intrigue, when many a lord and prelate ruled his manor by whim and fancy rather than by right and God...when the common man's slaving earned him nothing, and serfs met in secret to plot and to plan.
- LONDON, JOSEPH. *Angle of Attack*. Garden City, N. Y.: Doubleday and Co. 1952. 254 pp. \$2.75. Deep in Rumania in July 1944, a crippled American bomber abandoned its fruitless mission and lowered its landing gear as a signal of surrender. But as the enemy fighters ceased their attack and began escorting the bomber to a landing, the crew of the B-24 changed their minds and blasted the Nazis out of the cloudless blue sky. The book is the story of that bomber crew, of their return to Italy to face the tragic results of a violated covenant of war. For the Luftwaffe did not forgive, and took bloody vengeance on the whole heavy bombardment group. This is also the story of First Lieutenant Win Helman, navigator of the B-24. He, of all the crew, faced the worst ordeal. He had not wanted to surrender from the first, and, step by step, he was forced to assume full guilt for the shattered taboo.
- LASLEY, S. J. and MUDD, M. F. *Arithmetic in Life and Work*. New York 11: Prentice-Hall, Inc. 1952. Fourth edition. 272 pp. This edition is designed to equip students with mathematical abilities, knowledges, and experiences that will meet their everyday mathematical requirements. In general, the book offers: (a) a maximum course in arithmetic applied to life situations; (b) optional exercises which provide for individual differences; (c) a vocabulary study at the beginning of each chapter and a *Glossary of Mathematical Terms* in the Appendix to enable students to read the content more intelligently; (d) a plan of procedure to improve skill in the fundamentals of arithmetic and percentage—There are class *Inventory Tests* with individual follow-up *Practice Exercises* designed to overcome any weaknesses. For maintenance and improvement of the skills attained, there are *Review Exercises* supplemented by *Achievement Tests*;—(e) many topics which provide knowledges of value to a consumer in the home or in business; (f) geometry that is intuitive in nature. The students are made familiar with important geometric forms and mensuration.
- LEE, CLARK, and HENSCHEL, RICHARD. *Douglas MacArthur*. New York 10: Henry Holt and Co. 1952. 380 pp. \$6.00. This portrait of General of the Army Douglas MacArthur is much more than an engrossing pictorial record of his career from boyhood to the present, as reflected in more than 375 carefully selected photographs, many never before published. It is a behind-the-scenes biography of MacArthur the man, the father, and the soldier. The first section of the book (written by Clark Lee) tells MacArthur's life story. The emphasis is not only on the broad facts of his life but also on the many intriguing sidelights of his career—events which shaped his destiny and, indirectly, that of the United States. The big photobiography section of this book, edited and captioned by Richard Henschel, is an assembly of pictures of MacArthur. It is in itself a magnificent full-length album. From childhood to old age, it offers a provocative and memorable record of one of this country's most outstanding and controversial public figures.
- LEONHARD, CHARLES. *Recreation Through Music*. New York 16: A. S. Barnes and Co. 1952. 172 pp. \$3.00. Music has universal appeal and has been traditionally one of the principal forms of recreation. In order to utilize



to the fullest the unique contributions and the infinite potentialities of music as recreation, the recreation movement requires leaders who like music, understand something about it, and appreciate what it can do for people. This book is addressed to musical laymen: individuals who wish to participate more actively in recreational music, students and teachers, and professional recreation leaders. It provides a basic orientation to the recreation music program as well as practical suggestions for the conduct of the program. The book is replete with lists and recommendations for records, songs, and materials for both the listening and the singing programs of recreation.

LINTON, RALPH and ADELIN. *The Lore of Birthdays*. New York 21: Henry Schuman Inc. 1952. 128 pp. \$2.50. Everybody has birthdays. But how many of us know why we rejoice, feast, present gifts, light candles on a birthday cake? In this little book the Lintons have gathered together all of the delightful folklore and tradition that centers around the natal day. The reader will learn of the first birthday cake on record...how birthstones came to us from the twelve gems set in the breast plate of a high priest...how Cleopatra, after a quarrel with Marc Anthony, wooed his affections with a birthday party to end all birthday parties...how the Persian warlords celebrated their birthdays....

LIPKIN, CHARLES. *Multi-Aid Computer and Instruction Guide*. New York 1: Multi-Aid Computer Corp. 249 W. 34th St. 1951. \$1.00. This is a "pocket computing machine" made entirely of paper. This device for rapid multiplication can be used separate or in connection with the author's pamphlet, *Mental Multiplication* (50¢). It is not a slide rule, yet it slides. Answers are given in the significant digits, 1 to 9, without the use of slide-rule scales or logarithms. This master system permits a person to obtain, almost instantly, the product of two numbers, whether of two digits or of eight or more without the use of a pencil except to set down the final product.

LYON, ELINOR. *The House in Hiding*. New York 16: Cowan-McCann. 1952. 218 pp. \$2.50. Both Ian and his sister Sovra have a real gift for getting into scrapes, and a vacation on the west coast of Scotland, with the Hebrides Islands just across the sound, offers plenty of opportunity. When their father buys them a rowboat there's bound to be trouble. Getting caught at the edge of a whirlpool isn't as bad as it might have been though, for it leads to the discovery of the house in hiding.

MACDONALD, Z. K. *A Cap For Corrine*. New York 18: Julian Messner, Inc. 1952. 184 pp. \$2.50. This is the story of a beautiful girl who dedicated her life to others, told against the background of a great New York hospital. Corrine Fairchild could have had social position and wealth as the wife of Captain Grant, but she wanted only the simple starched cap of a graduate nurse. Then her life became complicated, for she fell in love with brilliant, mysterious Doctor Burnette, whose name was linked with the theft of narcotics.

MACMAHON, BRYAN. *Children of the Rainbow*. New York 10: E. P. Dutton and Co. 1952. 512 pp. \$3.95. Finn Dillon, leader by grace of wit and charm and devilry, is an almost mythical hero. Around him, through his life, rally the youth and age which make up the entrancing, panoramic drama; and when word comes home to Cloon that Finn Dillon is dead, it

is for him the brokenhearted people raise perhaps for the last time in Ireland the *Caoine*, the age-old Gaelic Lament.

MACPHERSON, M. L. *New Zealand Beckons*. New York 16: Dodd, Mead and Co. 1952. 256 pp. \$2.50. This is a live and friendly panorama of New Zealand as two keen young Americans saw it when they accompanied their professor father on a scientific trip. Their mother's closest friend, Dr. Dorothy Gunnell, went along with them, to study Polynesian art and folklore, and there were the pilot and co-pilot of the great plane which carried them over the ocean to this interesting land, very like and yet unlike the United States. So Janie and Jed had plenty of angles of approach to the people of another nation and they didn't skip one of them—in fact invented many more of their own!

After a fascinating flight, which included a call at Pitcairn, the home of the *Bounty* mutineers, they made a complete tour of the North and South Islands of New Zealand. They learned the history, the geography, the achievements and problems of that enchanting land. They made friends with the Maoris, noted their tribal customs, their friendly adjustment in the white man's world. They visited Parliament; skied on the snow-capped volcanoes and picnicked on the beaches; motored through the thermal district with its geysers and boiling mud-lakes. There was never a dull moment. "Boy," exclaimed young Jed, again and again, "did we have fun!"

MACRAE, DAVID. *The American At Home*. New York 10: E. P. Dutton and Co. 1952. 606 pp. \$4.50. Here is the America of almost 100 years ago, pictured in all its variety. The author was a man filled with curiosity about the United States at a time when most Americans scarcely knew what lay beyond their own yard limits in their vast country. Reaching the North American continent in 1868, the Reverend David Macrae landed in Canada on the first leg of his journey from Edinburgh. Working his way south along the eastern seaboard, he eventually turned inland, going as far west as New Orleans. After some time spent in that fascinating city, he took to the steamboats and made his way up the Mississippi River, to arrive eventually in Chicago, from which he again came east by easy stages.

MAND, EWALD. *The World is My Home*. New York 10: Friendship Press. 1952. 169 pp. \$2.00. Jaan had a great deal of learning to do about America. He had come to the United States with Aunt Liisa and Uncle Hans right after the war; his memory was crowded with scenes of terror—first the Russians, then the Germans; pillage, murder, oppression, and flight. And now at last he was in a free country—or was he?

MARTIN, E. T. *Thomas Jefferson, Scientist*. New York 21: Henry Schuman, Inc. 1952. 299 pp. \$4.00. This volume deals with a phase of Jefferson's life that hitherto has been but lightly touched upon by previous writers. Many people are aware of his universal interests but few are familiar with Jefferson's knowledge and accomplishments in the natural and physical sciences. The author, who has based his account on Jefferson's writings and other contemporary material, discloses the intense patriotism underlying Jefferson's activities in the field of agriculture, physics, botany, anthropology, meteorology, astronomy, and architecture. The United States owes its decimal coinage system to Jefferson, its weather bureau,

the early adoption of vaccination, and the establishment of scientific societies and museums. He foresaw the development of aviation, submarines and torpedoes; and the eventuality of mass production and standard parts. In the field of invention, he was a hundred years ahead of his time. Altogether, Jefferson's personal interests covered an extraordinary range and this is the first time that the intellectual side of his life has been presented to the general reader.

MARX, H. L. JR. *Gambling in America*. New York 52: H. W. Wilson Co. 1952. 222 pp. \$1.75. The preface states: "Few human activities raise so various a range of responses as does gambling. To the moralist, it verges on or encompasses sinfulness. To the mathematical theorist, it represents the utter futility of trying to perform the impossible (i.e., trying to 'beat the system'). To the governmental official, it spells, depending on its form, a source of sorely needed revenue or a severe law enforcement problem. To the gregarious extrovert, it offers an opportunity for conviviality." The book presents interesting articles touching on this problem.

MASEFIELD, JOHN. *So Long to Learn*. New York: Macmillan Co. 1952. 181 pp. \$3.00. In this book the author has set down his vivid recollections, telling about the influences which have been important to him as a writer throughout his life, of his long interest in poetic drama, of his work in literature over the past half century. The title is taken from Chaucer: "The lyfe so short, the craft so long to lerne, th' assay so hard, so sharp the conquering."

MEAD, MARGARET, and MACGREGOR, F. C. *Growth and Culture*. New York 19: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1952. 239 pp. \$7.50. In this book the general problem of the way in which culture patterns human growth, emphasizing some potentialities and muting others, is discussed on the basis of Balinese materials, with additional data from other South Sea cultures in which Margaret Mead has worked. The growth of eight Balinese children is documented by 58 pages of illustrations selected from 4000 photographs, and analyzed by Frances Macgregor in collaboration with members of Arnold Gesell's research staff. The discussion makes systematic use of Gesell's concepts and will appeal to those readers who have been interested in Gesell's work. The book is based on the Balinese field work conducted by Gregory Bateson and Margaret Mead in Bali between 1936 and 1939.

MEIGS, E. B. *The Crusade and the Cup*. New York 10: E. P. Dutton and Co. 1952. 152 pp. \$2.50. Two brothers, Patrick and Alain O'Neill of the noble Irish House of O'Neill, set out on the Crusade of Richard the Lion-Hearted. Patrick was the knight in charge of the studs of the royal stable aboard the ship carrying them to Cyprus. Here the Princess Berengaria, betrothed to King Richard, was held for ransom and here the Crusaders must stop to rescue her before proceeding to the Holy Land. Alain, the gentle younger brother, was blind. Berengaria was rescued and married to King Richard who himself placed his heavy crown upon her head. The Crusade was turned back, however, due to the cowardly desertion of Richard's French and Austrian allies. Alain and Patrick heard of a deserted village where the Grail was said to be hidden. They went in search of it and their experiences, awe-inspiring and beautiful, bring the story to a fitting end.

MEISTER, MORRIS; KEIRSTEAD, R. E.; SHOEMAKER, L. M. *Science For a Better World*. New York 17: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1952. 784 pp. \$3.20. The principles of atomic energy, antibiotics, rainmaking, new plastics, isotopes, insecticides, radar, jet propulsion, photosynthesis, plant and animal breeding, color television, fluoridation of water supply, the H-bomb, automobiles that require no shifting of gears—all of these, and many others, are treated in this book.

Modern objectives of education are accepted and the means for realizing them are provided. The book contains pupil activities that furnish the medium for good habit formation. It arouses the interest of the student and makes him think scientifically. Its first aim is to develop a scientific habit of mind. In style, in vocabulary, in sentence structure, in grade placement of concepts, the materials have been adapted to the vast majority of normal ninth grade pupils. The book offers a graded array of concepts, principles, and information. Ten large units comprise the course. Each unit is developed in two or more chapters, for a total of forty-one, or about one chapter a week through the school year. The teachability of the book is enhanced by the step-by-step sequence in the building of science concepts. Many illustrations are offered the student. Hundreds of drawings were specially designed by expert artists. Six double-spread, four-color plates provide attractive teaching aids for subjects that lend themselves to color treatment.

MELVILLE, HERMAN. *Moby-Dick*. New York 3: Hendricks House. 1952. 903 pp. \$5.00. Since the appearance of the classic *Moby-Dick*, many questions have arisen in the minds of readers. Many of these questions are answered in this centennial edition by the editors, Luther S. Mansfield and Howard P. Vincent, in their extensive notes of nearly 150,000 words. They have made a careful study of the many surviving books which Melville marked and annotated—his Bible, his Shakespeare, his Beale. They have read all the books Melville is known to have bought or borrowed during the important seven-year period between his return from the South Seas in 1844 and the publication of *Moby-Dick*. Here also for the first time is an exhaustive study of the differences between the original English and American editions of Melville's masterpiece. The introduction to this volume summarizes interpretations made during the past century—from the contemporary reviews of the book to the present time. The notes draw on scores of scholarly articles published since the Melville revival of the early nineteen-twenties, as well as unpublished ideas and discoveries which students of the classic all over the country have cheerfully contributed to this definitive enterprise.

MILLER, H. L. *Holiday Plays for Teen-Agers*. Boston 16: Plays, Inc. 1952. 363 pp. \$3.50. Presenting plays for the celebration of holidays is traditional with schools, clubs, churches, and young amateur dramatic groups. The holiday calendar is often more important than the school calendar to the teacher or director. The royalty-free one-act plays in this book will help solve the problem that arises at every major holiday season when any class, committee, or young people's groups says, "Let's put on a play."

The prime objective of these plays is entertainment, but each play brings out the ideals and traditions of the holiday it represents. There

are amusing, modern comedies for Halloween, Thanksgiving, Valentine's Day, Easter, and Mother's Day, as well as lively, entertaining plays for patriotic holidays, such as Lincoln's Birthday, Washington's Birthday, and Memorial Day. The patriotic plays focus attention on basic principles of our American heritage. The plays in this volume are fun to produce and to watch. The characters are natural and act and talk like true-to-life modern young people, so that teen-agers can interpret them easily and effectively.

MONTROSS, LYNN. *Rag, Tag and Bobtail*. New York 16: Harper and Brothers.

1952. 529 pp. \$5.00. By letting the participants speak for themselves whenever possible, the author has written in effect an eye-witness account of the American Revolution and its valiant little army of colonials. His collaborators are the men and women—rebels and loyalists, Britons and Hessians, generals and privates, scholars and dolts and camp followers—who shaped those crucial years and kept intimate records of their experiences. Written from first-hand sources, this book contains more diary material than any other account of the Revolution. Hundreds of journals have been culled for the significant and colorful details which make of history a human adventure, and Mr. Montross provides the framework of events. Strategy has its inevitable part in the story, but it will be remembered chiefly for the exciting and telling glimpses it affords into the daily lives of the soldiers who fought the battles, suffered imprisonment, privations, the men who bore the responsibility of success or failure, the women who followed their men on the long harrowing marches during the war.

MORGAN, JILL. *A Man of the Word*. Westwood, N. J.: Revell Co. 1951. 404

pp. \$4.50. Since the death six years ago of that prince of Bible expositors, G. Campbell Morgan, there has been incessant demand from the public for the publication of an official biography. Such a work was not to be lightly undertaken or swiftly completed, for it must be of heroic proportions in keeping with the character of the man. Now it is here, the product of Dr. Morgan's personal diary, the family's own records, and the contributions of a host of friends the world around.

MORRIS, ALLEN. *The Florida Handbook*. Tallahassee: The Peninsular Pub-

lishing Co., Box 549. 1951. 417 pp. This attractive volume is a third edition. It presents the interesting facts and history of this state. The first chapter tells why the people of this state are proud of it by describing great events and personages in its long history. Other chapters show what makes this state a good place in which to live and to earn a living; how the people govern themselves; and fact, figures, and people; it also contains a copy of the state's constitution; an index; and many illustrations, charts, and pictures.

MOWAT, FARLEY. *People of the Deer*. Boston 6: Atlantic, Little, Brown

and Co. 1952. 352 pp. \$4.00. High up on our continent, in the great Barrens to the northwest of Hudson Bay, live the last of the Ithalmiut, the People of the Deer. Fifty years ago these inland Eskimos numbered a prosperous two thousand. They were a strong and happy people, living in harmony with nature and themselves. Today there are a mere two score survivors. This book tells how the intrusion of the white man has driven these primitive folk to the verge of extinction. It also tells how the

white man was responsible for the decimation of the great herds of caribou upon which the people lived.

MUDRICK, MARVIN. *Jane Austen*. Princeton, N. J.: Princeton University Press, 1952. 279 pp. \$5.00. In this book Jane Austen emerges from behind the assumptions of a hundred years and takes her true place among the greatest masters of irony. Instead of "gentle Jane," she is shown to be a writer uncomfortably acute and irreverent, resisting society by exposing it in all its incongruities and delusions, through novels often admired for qualities which they actually subvert or ignore. The author examines all of Jane Austen's writings as works of art and as aspects of a developing personal irony, which he demonstrates to be the vital principle of her art. The author's thesis is that irony, first used as her defense against involvement in deeper feeling, gradually became the force which liberated her for new explorations into her art. Thus the book challenges traditional ideas both about Jane Austen's books and about the mind and life from which they were created.

MUELLER, G. W., and ROBERTSON, E. C. *Fundamentals of Health and Safety*. New York 3: D. Van Nostrand Co. 1952. 355 pp. This book is planned to provide simple facts and practical suggestions which will enable the student to live a healthy life and at least help to inspire him to do so. It covers the subject matter essential for all young people, yet it is sufficiently brief to be mastered in the limited time usually allotted to the use of a textbook in a course in health. The use of technical terms has been restricted to those that are useful to the pupil because he will read or hear them in his daily life. Explanations rather than formal definitions have been used throughout. The style is clear, simple, and friendly and directed toward mastery of vital understandings. Questions at chapter-ends test understanding, and activities help both teacher and pupil to use this knowledge pleasantly and profitably.

MULLIGAN, J. E. *Experiences in Journalism*. Chicago 16: Lyons and Carnahan. 1950. 342 pp. It is the purpose of this book to provide thorough instruction, fitting examples, and stimulating experiences for the beginning student of journalism. The author believes the major purposes of high-school journalism should include: the providing of motivated work in written composition, the providing of effective training for work on the school newspaper, and the promotion of intelligent reading of our newspapers. Practices on the school newspaper are emphasized; reference to daily newspaper practice is made only where such reference adds to the effectiveness of the school newspaper work or the intelligent use of the newspapers of our country. Illustrative examples have been taken from school papers in the belief that they will have the greatest interest for the school news writer and will apply most directly to the problems of the high-school student of journalism. One unit in this text concerns the business department of the school paper. The customary and effective method of training new workers of the business staff is to train assistants. Student workers who are soon to be graduated are given assistants who learn by practice the specific business process as carried on in the school. For advisers and business staffs who are starting a new school paper, suggestions have been made as to where and how to find additional information.

MURPHY, R. E., and M. F. *Pennsylvania Landscapes*. State College: Penns Valley Publishers, 121 South Frazier St. 1952. 302 pp. \$3.50. Here's the geographic story of Pennsylvania. It tells how its people live and work. What its industry and agriculture are. Why Pennsylvania is such a great industrial state. How environment has affected the development of transportation. How weather and climate differ throughout the state. It is designed for a semester's work in geography for eighth- or ninth-grade pupils. It has 14 chapters: (3 introductory) 10 basic chapters, each of which is devoted to a distinct and important Pennsylvania region; and a concluding chapter, "Pennsylvania's Heritage."

MYGATT, E. D. *Rim-Rocked*. New York 3: Longmans, Green and Co. 1952. 215 pp. \$2.50. Dave and Stuart had taken on a big assignment when they offered to work a Wyoming ranch on shares. But they found the new West where pack trains carry geiger counters and the newest of modern equipment to be more exciting than their dreams of the West where grizzled prospectors once walked the mountains alone. With their school friend Ned, a speed demon, they left the comforts of home and landed in the midst of a situation at the ranch that called forth all their resources and ingenuity.

NASH, E. A. *Lucky Miss Spaulding*. New York 18: Julian Messner Inc. 1952. 182 pp. \$2.50. For years Caroline Spaulding had dreamed of working at one of New York's most fabulous fashion stores. She knew that she faced terrific competition for the job, but she decided to take her chances, for she had always been lucky. This is the story of her dream come true as she shares in the drama of life behind the scenes in the world of fashion, assisting at a fashion show, meeting models, designers, and buyers whose business is beauty. Gradually she climbs from stock girl into the fascinating world of fashion retailing. A world of glamor and grueling work, of jealousy and petty politics, but a world that Caroline found so absorbing that there was almost no time for love.

NEGLEY, GLENN, and PATRICK, J. M. *The Quest for Utopia*. New York 21: Henry Schuman Inc. 1952. 599 pp. \$6.75. This is a unique volume of 33 imaginary utopias, 80 per cent of them hitherto unavailable. The average reader will find something to titivate his fancy, whether he is interested in the lighter aspects of the fantastic represented by science fiction or the more serious introspective studies of a sociological nature. Readers who want adventure, fantasy, and thrilling narrative will find them in H. G. Wells' *A Modern Utopia*, and William Stanley's *The Case of the Fox*. Politics, of course, has always been important in utopian worlds, and Cabet's *Icaria*, describing a Communistic society, is a remarkable anticipation of the teachings of Marx and the practices current in modern Russia. All political shades of utopian speculation are included, from sturdy individualism to the radical.

Religion, another dominant force in the utopian dream, is exemplified in Sir Thomas More's treatment of *Natural Religion*. *Antangil* is colored by the broad Protestantism of its Huguenot author. Sir Francis Bacon, though long regarded as an apostle of science, describes in his *New Atlantis* a society which is equally dedicated to both Christianity and society. *Telemachus*, by Fenelon, an Archbishop in the Roman Catholic Church, is not primarily concerned with religion; but Tomaso Campanella,



a monk, while holding the church in considerable reverence, propounds theories in his *City of the Sun* which the Roman Catholic Church would certainly seem to condemn. This volume will expose the reader to many aspects of human thought and activity, and his armchair explorations and travels will take him into a host of imaginary realms. For scholars and teachers, the editors, both specialists in utopian literature, offer a history of utopias and information previously inaccessible in English. Moreover, they clarify the nature and definition of utopias and trace the main currents and influences of utopian thought.

NEWSOM, N. W.; DOUGLASS, H. R.; DOTSON, H. L. *Living and Planning Your Life*. New York 16: Harper and Brothers. 1952. 480 pp. \$3.48. This book is the outgrowth of many years of study and teaching guidance courses. It is designed for student use in high-school classes under the direction of the subject teacher, homeroom sponsor, or the counselor. It covers major areas of guidance with the materials organized into five significant units. The materials have been prepared for student use. They are directed to the student and presented to him in a personal way. Under each of the problems there are discursive materials, things for him to discuss, and things for him to do, as well as sources for him to consult. A study of the materials should help give a student the basic ideas and implications necessary in the adjustment of his life.

NOTARIUS, NANETTE, and LARSON, A. S. Compilers and editors. *The Handbook of Free Films*. New York 17: Allanan Associates, 509 Fifth Ave. 1952. 237 pp. \$10.00. This book presents titles and descriptions of 2,395 free-loan films. They are listed in alphabetical order by title. In addition, the book contains an index by interests groups, such as films of special interest to rural groups, sports films, technical and training films, travel films, films of special interest to women groups, and silent films. The concluding part of the book gives the names and addresses of 389 sources of free-loan films and their more than 750 local distribution points. Each source carries a cross reference of page numbers of the films available through that source. Each source gives the procedures necessary for the person borrowing the film.

PALLAS, NORVIN. *The Secret of Thunder Mountain*. New York 19: Ives Washburn Inc. 1952. 192 pp. \$2.50. Old Goldie, a prospector who may have a hidden gold mine, dies one day, leaving an envelope addressed to T.A.F. It contains only the photograph of a small cabin. Who is Old Goldie, and who is T.A.F? Is there a mine? Ted Wilford and his friend Nelson Morgan set out to answer these questions because, if they discover the mine, it will be theirs. They establish that, if it exists at all, it is on Thunder Mountain, and from that point the race is on.

PARTRIDGE, BASIL. *The Penningtons*. Philadelphia 7: Westminster Press. 1952. 284 pp. \$3.00. This is the story of a large and wonderful family, their problems and the ways in which they are resolved. Opening in the year 1905 in a remote Canadian city, it takes the reader into the deanery of the Anglican cathedral there and straight into the hearts of the Penningtons. Although only five of the eight family members are living there at the time, they are such a united clan that none is ever really absent. Presided over by a wise and kindly father, who is the beloved dean of the cathedral, and a dynamic, temperamental mother, the children rep-

resent a mixture of characteristics which produces turbulence and complication, humor and deep affection.

PAULI, HERTHA. *Lincoln's Little Correspondent*. Garden City, N. Y.: Doubleday and Co. 1952. 128 pp. \$2.50. "How small a thing will sometimes change the whole aspect of our lives!" This is what Abraham Lincoln used to say about the story of eleven-year-old Grace Bedell. Have you ever heard of her? Few people have, and they often regard her story as it if were a bit of American folklore, too pretty to be all fact. But it is all fact. Grace wanted Mr. Lincoln to be President. She wanted it so much that she had an idea for him, and she told him in a letter. And, unlikely as it might seem that a great man would listen to a little girl, Lincoln listened. His little correspondent saw her own dream come true, and the outcome of her letter was the picture of Abraham Lincoln that has since remained unforgettable.

PHARES, ROSS. *Cavalier in the Wilderness*. Baton Rouge: Louisiana State University Press. 1952. 290 pp. \$3.50. The Spaniards threw Louis Juchereau de St. Denis into jail when he entered Mexican territory in 1714, for the Louisiana-Texas frontier at that time was a place where smouldering international rivalries often broke into violence. By the time St. Denis returned to Louisiana, however, he had succeeded not only in turning his former captors into customers for the commercial colony of Louisiana and in leading an expedition of Spaniards into Texas for settling, but also in winning a bride from the family whose official business it was to keep him out of Mexico.

Such was the man chosen by France to maintain peace and prosperity in the Louisiana colony for a quarter of a century. As a soldier he kept the Spaniards at bay, mainly through his influence over the Indians living in Texas and Louisiana. As an Indian fighter he was so capable that Louisiana suffered comparatively little from Indian depredations. As an agent for the commercial colony he promoted international trade in spite of Spanish law, and as a diplomat he made friends with both Spaniards and Indians.

PRESTON, G. H. *Should I Retire?* New York 16: Rinehart and Co. 1952. 181 pp. \$2.50. Attacking the subject from both sides of the fence, the author begins by discussing the reasons for retirement and then considers the question of who can do it successfully and who cannot. He also considers the special difficulties of women, the danger signs (physiological and mental) to watch for, the ever-present problem of money, and old age.

RAUBICHECK, LETITIA. *Speech Improvement*. New York 11: Prentice-Hall Inc. 1952. 235 pp. In preparing this book the author had in mind the needs of high-school students in the special speech classes in the schools and universities, and the speech rehabilitation clinics in hospitals. Although only the most usual voice and speech disorders are discussed here, the material will also be found useful for students suffering from cleft palate, cerebral palsy, and aphasia. The chapter on foreign accent is designed to aid new Americans to be assimilated into our common life by helping them to acquire our mother tongue. The many exercises under each section were composed in answer to numerous requests for more and varied material. An effort has been made to meet both the interest range and the vocabulary needs of adolescents through various quiz games and

reading selections. The material in each section has been organized according to units. Students' check lists, bound separately, are designed to help the student visualize the entire re-educational problem and to proceed at his own rate.

- RINEHART, M. R. *The Swimming Pool*. New York 16: Rinehart and Co. 1952. 312 pp. \$3.00. In this book the author produces that intricate mixture of glamour, suspense and romance that makes her mysteries appealing to the reader. A luxurious house—a socialite family—and an unknown body; this is the hallmark of the Rinehart mystery. In this book there is the ex-millionaire Maynard family of Westchester and New York. Judith, the family beauty and recent divorcee, is the central figure of the story. Just back from Reno, and (against everyone's wish) ensconced at The Birches, family home, Judith is in a state of terror. She refuses to go out into the daylight, shows a special fear of cab drivers and—to make everything even more mystifying—refuses to explain her strange behavior to anyone.
- ROGERS, L. B.; ADAMS, FAY; BROWN, WALKER. *Story of Nations*. New York 10: Henry Holt and Co. 1952. 752 pp. \$4.16. In this new book, the authors have continued to follow the same scheme as in their earlier versions of *Story of Nations*. Their plan presents world history in units of comprehension, called Parts. The early Parts (One through Five in this edition) tell the stories of ancient civilizations and nations. The next three Parts cover religions, feudal times, and the Renaissance. Parts Nine through Twenty-One tell each modern nation's story from the beginning down to the present. Recent happenings in each country are told briefly, with emphasis on events of internal significance. They treat matters of international importance in the last two Parts—Parts Twenty-Two and Twenty-Three, which cover world events from before World War I to the present.

The last Part is of particular interest to today's students. The United Nations, the Cold War, the ferment in Asia, and the open clash between the communistic and the democratic nations supply the material for Part Twenty-Three. It brings into sharp focus all the trends and influences scattered through the stories of individual nations. It brings home to the pupil the reality of history, because the subject materials of the final part of this book are still the urgent themes of daily newspaper headlines. At the end of each part, the following study aid sections are included: "Let's look at what we've learned," "Terms," "Questions for Discussion and Review," "Interesting Things to Do," and "Interesting Reading."

- ROSSKOPF, M. F. *Mathematics, A Second Course*. New York 18: McGraw-Hill Book Co. 1952. 383 pp. \$2.80. A basic assumption of this textbook is that high-school students can both master and enjoy demonstrative geometry. One way to achieve this is to use a method of teaching that will allow a student to discover for himself the propositions of demonstrative geometry. By means of reorganization of material and emphasis on development of critical thinking, a student is guided in the steps he needs to follow in order to master deductive thinking.

By using a sound psychology of learning and by providing experiences consciously pointed toward common life situations, the material is directed toward capitalizing upon the carry-over potentialities that are peculiar to

geometry. Many exercises, experiences, and illustrations are provided to help the student transfer to life situations the patterns of thinking that he acquires from geometry. Some of the features of the book may be summarized as follows: (1) The vocabulary is simple but adequate; motion is systematic. (2) Students must discover statements of the theorems and their proofs. (3) Figures evolve with proofs. (4) Student notebooks are required. (5) The congruence theorems are assumed. (6) Three-dimensional geometry is discussed informally. (7) Algebraic and geometric methods merge naturally. (8) Nongeometric material appears in each chapter. (9) Individual differences are provided for by means of graded exercises. (10) Evaluation is made of thinking in both geometric and nongeometric situations.

The teacher's manual contains a list of all assumptions, definitions, and theorems that are presented in the textbook. These are listed in the order of their introduction so that a teacher can see at a glance the logical structure of the development. The answers to all numerical exercises and all nongeometric exercises are given. A sentence, or a paragraph, of advice is given in the teacher's manual wherever the authors believe such advice will be helpful. Much thought and effort was given to the preparation of the teacher's manual in order to make it an effective, but not restrictive, aid to a teacher.

ROTHERY, AGNES. *New York Today*. New York 11: Prentice-Hall Inc. 1952. 287 pp. \$3.75. This book is a portrait of the life of a great city painted by an author whose books about far-off places have made her one of America's most widely-read writers in the field of travel. The author's portrayal of a city which houses more people than any other and, at the same time, is the nation's most popular tourist attraction is a many-sided one. She depicts not only the New York of the visitor but also the New York of the native. Her likeness will delight both. Here are the new United Nations capital, the door to freedom that is Ellis Island, the fascinating foreign sections and their people, the constant flow of traffic through the streets and rivers of the city, the relatively unknown boroughs of The Bronx, Brooklyn, Queens and Staten Island, the busy wholesale markets.

ROWE, J. L. *Typewriting for Speed and Accuracy*. New York 18: Gregg Publishing Co. 1952. 128 pp. This is an all-inclusive drill book designed to help all typists improve their basic speed and accuracy. It is arranged for use in regular classes, in special classes, and for private practice. It provides material for intensive practice, for skill-building pressure drives, and for sustained writing. This drill book contains 90 timed-writing selections that may and should be repeated many times in order to attain the best results. In addition, 150 special-purpose drills and 147 special preview drills on words, phrases, and sentences offer a variety of interesting and effective practice work. The materials in this book are organized in flexible Units. Each unit has three Parts, comprising a balanced program for systematically developing speed and accuracy in typewriting.

RUSSELL, BERTRAND. *New Hopes for a Changing World*. New York 20: Simon and Schuster Inc. 1952. 215 pp. \$3.00. In this new book, the winner of the 1950 Nobel Prize for Literature has written a lucid and inspiring plea for freedom from fear. As a great philosopher, he affirms his faith

in the life of reason, the good life, the happy life, in the midst of the terrors and tensions of our time. As a great humanist, he shows us how to attain and live such a life. He examines the three basic conflicts of life—between man and nature, between man and man, between man and himself—and shows how our ancient fears and our outworn ideologies and fallacies can be resolved by fortitude and intelligence into a mature, serene, and effective way of life.

- ST. GEORGE, ELEANOR. *Dolls of Three Centuries*. New York 17: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1951. 225 pp. \$4.50. The author's previous book, *The Dolls of Yesterday*, has become a standard work for doll collectors. Now she has written a companion volume, rich with the kind of illustrations and new facts that made her first work such a success. The author has gathered more than 350 photographs and information about outstanding modern and antique collections in both this country and Europe. Among the many items she discusses are the life and work of Grace Storey Putnam, creator of the Bye-lo baby; Japanese festival dolls and the beautiful Victoria and Albert Museum dolls; a solution to the mystery of the Jumeau and Bru dolls; and dolls with histories—among them "the doll that went through the great flood," the mysterious Hawthorne doll, "Miss Flora McFlimsey," and "Jedediah," world traveller and mascot of the Churchill family.

—, *Dolls of Yesterday*. New York 17: Charles Scribner's Sons. This book is an indispensable book for the doll collector, for it gives information about the kinds of dolls to look for, where to find them, how to identify them and how to care for them. Material for this book was gathered from doll collectors all over the country, and there are data on almost every type of doll. There are photographs of over 450 dolls, including almost all of America's doll celebrities as well as many less famous dolls. Although intended primarily for collectors, this book is written so entertainingly that it will appeal to anyone at all interested in dolls.

- SALVADORI, MASSIMO. *The Rise of Modern Communism*. New York 17: Henry Holt and Co. 1952. 128 pp. \$2.00. By 1952 the Communist movement has come to exercise undisputed control over a large area of the Eastern Hemisphere, from the Bering Straits to Thuringia in central Germany, from the Arctic Ocean to the frontiers of Indo-China, India, and the Near East. Over 750,000,000 people live within this area—one third of the earth's populations! If the democratic nations of the world are to check this constantly expanding menace, they must understand clearly the Communist enemy—how the movement began, what forces shaped its development, its position today, its aspirations for tomorrow. Can communism be weakened or contained? Can its internal structure be changed? Can it be liberalized? Can we hope to cohabit this globe with so truculent a foe? Can we expect a falling-out of Chinese and Soviet Communist leaders? Can there be a peaceful transfer of power among the members of the Communist oligarchy? These questions—and others equally troublesome—are analyzed and answered succinctly in this book.
- SAYRE, L. C. *Africans on Safari*. New York 10: Friendship Press. 1952. 165 pp. \$2.50. Paper \$1.25. Through the eyes of the Reverend Phillip Camborne, a retired pastor from Michigan, the reader sees the broad canvas of indigenous African life—its tribal cults, taboos, and hoary witch-

craft, and its vast social shiftings under the impact of missions, modern technology, and high-g geared city life. With a background of missionary work in the Belgian Congo, the author spells out the problems and accomplishments of Africans not in generalities, but in clear-cut details. The hopes and fears—and the accomplishments, too—of these hundreds of different tribes are conveyed through four fascinating biographies of African men and women, each of whom has made the great safari in a different way.

SCOTT, PETER. *Wild Geese and Eskimos*. New York 17: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1952. 254 pp. \$5.00. This is the author's journal of his expedition in 1949, with two companions, to the Perry River in Arctic Canada. The principal object of the expedition was to study the birds of a region difficult of access and hitherto unvisited by a party of scientists. The Perry River area was chosen because it was known to be near the breeding sites of geese and other wildfowl—especially of the rare Ross's goose, a species threatened by extinction. The journal is now, however, a formal record of the expedition's scientific labors and results—though ornithologists and others will find it full of valuable information. It is a vivid, personal story of an Arctic journey, of which the author's talents as artist, writer, and naturalist make him the ideal interpreter. As absorbing as its descriptions of birds are its accounts of the Eskimos of the Perry River area. The author got to know these merry and lovable people well, and the affection established between him and the Eskimos enables him to give an intimate study of their way of life. The book is illustrated from photographs by Paul Queneau, a member of the expedition, and from an oil-painting and black-and-white drawings by the author.

SCOTT-JAMES, R. A. *Fifty Years of English Literature 1900-1950*. New York 3: Longmans, Green and Co. 1952. 265 pp. This is a critical survey of the century down to our own time. In making it the author has had two aims: firstly to treat each writer as an individual and bring out what is characteristic and unique in his work; and secondly to show how the literature is an expression of the mind of the British people continuously responding to, or reacting against, new conditions and new ideas. While of course giving more extended accounts of the major writers—such as Henry James, Shaw, Wells, Bennett, Yeats, E. M. Forster, Conrad, Galsworthy, Joyce, D. H. Lawrence, Virginia Woolf, T. S. Eliot, the Sitwells, Huxley, Graham Greene, W. H. Auden, Christopher Fry—he has also discussed the many interesting secondary writers who, in his judgment, have deserved or held the attention of their contemporaries; each of these he has endeavored to fit into his proper place in the main body of modern literature.

SHANE, H. G.; FERRIS, F. K.; KEENER, E. E. *Growth in Good English and Using Good English*. Chicago 6: Laidlaw Brothers, 1952. 384 pages each. These two books for grades 7 and 8 are language texts in the *Good English Series* for Grades 3 through 8. Each book in the new series is divided into chapters for convenient use of the rich subject matter suggested. This is done deliberately to help the teacher to use imagination and initiative in adapting the content to the unique nature and needs of a particular group of children.

Each book in the series provides a cumulative program of testing through which the teacher can gauge the success with which children

have grasped new language concepts. The reviews which appear at the end of each chapter are designed to contribute to an appraisal of the individual child's growth. Such reviews are included with the intention that they be used *with* rather than *on* pupils.

At the end of each volume a conveniently placed reference section summarizes the language learnings which have been endowed with meaning during the course of the school year. Examples of language-facts-in-use are included to help each pupil interpret these facts for himself. Emphasis also is placed on creative expression as a means to socially desirable personality development. In every book of the series pupils are encouraged to see the reason for, and sense the meaning in, what they are studying. In the upper years, as increasing heed is given to grammatical form, it is clothed with the good sense of practical usage. The vocabulary used and the concepts presented in each book have been checked. They are in accord with recent readability and vocabulary researches. Finally, technical words inherent in the subject matter are kept within sensible limits.

SHERMAN, A. R. *Birds of an Iowa Dooryard*. Boston 20: Christopher Publishing House. 1952. 270 pp. \$3.75. The book contains a unique and valuable collection of the author's writings (edited by Fred J. Pierce)—all the important nesting studies, chosen from her unpublished work and from papers published in the *Auk* and *Wilson Bulletin*. Arthur J. Palas, long a friend of the author, contributes an intimate biography to the book. His Foreword gives the reader a clear picture of the author and the surroundings in which she worked. Among the author's singular accomplishments was the building of a tower, 30 feet high and 9 feet square, for the sole purpose of attracting the Chimney Swift so that a systematic study of its nesting habits could be made—probably the only structure of its kind in existence. Peep-holes at several places in the chimney allowed the close observations which resulted in some of the most complete studies of nesting of this species ever made, over a long period of years.

SHIELDS, CARRINGTON. *Careers for Tomorrow*. Washington, D. C.: Civic Education Service. 1952. 191 pp. \$1.50. For a long time readers of the vocational columns that appear in *The American Observer* and the *Weekly News Review*, weekly newspapers for high-school youth published by Civic Education Service, have asked where they might find a collection of the columns. This volume is the answer to their questions. Readers of the two current history papers will recognize old friends among the vocational sketches, but they will find that the old friends have been improved in the process of rewriting. New occupational discussions have been added, and two sections, "Making Your Choice" and "Three Last Reminders," have been written especially for this book. The new sections are an attempt to answer questions that have come to the author from hundreds of high-school students. "I thought I wanted to be a psychiatrist, but I find I like to work with engines. What should I do?" "After I decide on a career, how can I go about finding a job?" "Why don't you tell us what girls can do?" Each of the vocational discussions included in this volume has been checked by an expert in the field. Indexed.

SMITH, H. A. *Mister Zip*. Garden City, N. Y.: Doubleday and Co. 1952. 252 pp. \$2.75. Eschewing the false-face morals of the movie world, Zip sets



out to be a genuine cowpoke, and rides on into some real tough hombres. The resulting stampede of hilarious adventures rounds up every revered cliché in the history of western drama, including a Trampas walk, a capture and rescue of the heroine, untying of knots by horses, and a mighty purty fade-out.

- SMITH, T. L., and HOMER, L. H. *The People of Louisiana*. Baton Rouge: Louisiana State University Press. 1952. 291 pp. \$5.00. This book, the culmination of two decades of painstaking study and research, analyzes and sets forth the basic facts about Louisiana's most valuable resource—her people. Initially, consideration is given to the present number of inhabitants in Louisiana and the manner in which they are distributed throughout the various political, social, and economic areas which make up the commonwealth. Following this, attention is focused upon the make-up or characteristics of the population. Residence in rural and urban areas, the age distribution, racial stocks, national origins, the proportion of the sexes, marital condition, educational status, occupations, and religious affiliations are all analyzed and treated in detail, with emphasis upon the trends that are under way as well as upon the present situation. Next comes a detailed study of the rate of reproduction and the death rate, the two principal factors determining the number of people in Louisiana and how they are distributed. The currents of migration as they flow from one part of the state to another are than analyzed and described. Finally, detailed consideration is given to the growth of population in Louisiana, its trends, and the redistribution of the state's inhabitants that is taking place.
- STAFFORD, JEAN. *The Catherine Wheel*. New York 17: Harcourt, Brace and Co. 1952. 281 pp. \$3.00. "Their last happy summer"—that's how Katharine Congreve thought of it, because things would never again be the same at Congreve House for any of them—for her, for John and Maeve Shipley, or their children. She had promised John Shipley to begin a new life with him if he had not reconciled himself to his marriage before the end of summer. Then he had sailed for Europe with Maeve. And so, as the wheel of summer turns, the love story of Katharine Congreve proceeds to an unexpected and somehow inevitable conclusion.
- STEELMAN, L. W. *A Few Acres and Security*. New York 22: Greenberg Publisher, 201 E. 57 St. 1952. 332 pp. \$5.00. This is a practical book by a practical farmer. It has been written expressly for the family that wants to leave the metropolitan area for life in the country. The author is a practicing farmer who has been called on to answer thousands of questions from families planning to move to rural areas. Here he consolidates over 40 years of experience and presents "the entire story" in easy-to-understand, easy-to-use form.
- STEPHEN, DAVID. *String Lug the Fox*. Boston 6: Little, Brown and Co. 1952. 174 pp. \$2.75. This is the tale of a fox's life from the time he is whelped in an inland den until the last ambush. To follow String Lug in this story is to be attuned with him to woods and fields and the animals who live in them. It is to share his suspicions, his desires, and his canniness. It is to understand this most storied of animals more thoroughly than ever before.

- STILES, BERT. *Serenade to the Big Bird*. New York 3: W. W. Norton and Co. 1952. 216 pp. \$2.75. This is a young American airman's account of himself and how he lived in England and in the sky over the enemy. It tells what happened to him and to his friends while they fought their war, or went on pass in London, or talked, or waited out still another mission, or remembered home. It tells of a time when maturity caught them by surprise. But more than that it intimately reveals the intricate person that was Bert Stiles.
- STOUTENBERG, ADRIEN. *Timber Line Treasure*. Philadelphia 7: Westminster Press. 1951. 218 pp. \$2.50. When his uncle Gray said that Fred's best friend, Jolly, could go along on the archaeological expedition, it sounded like good fun. Jolly wanted to be a scientist, and some old drawings in a cave above the timber line sounded almost as exciting to him as they did to young Professor Grayson. The vacation adventure in the Rockies had been planned when Professor Britt, head of the Department of Archaeology, told about the old Indian tracings he had discovered but was forced to abandon because of ill health. Fred wanted to go on the expedition because he had ambitions to be a news photographer.
- SUMMERS, HOLLIS. *Brighten the Corner*. Garden City, N. Y.: Doubleday and Co. 1952. 217 pp. \$2.75. This story of life in a Baptist parsonage is related by Joe's older brother Albert, who was also his inseparable friend. As Mother said: "Even at Sunday-school picnics they talk together as if they hadn't met for a long time." Sharonville, Kentucky, was fun for the boys, especially for Joe. They got to know the congregation, sometimes too well. Through a series of maids, in and out of church socials, Sunday-school sessions, visits to ailing neighbors, and on an extended motor trip to see their grandparents in Pennsylvania, Joe and Albert managed to evolve a multitude of unusual situations. These form a humorous, warm-hearted story of boyhood in an uncomplicated era, when Father thought dancing was sinful, and Mother's driving was even more of a hazard than today.
- TAYLOR, ALLAN. *What Eisenhower Thinks*. New York 16: Thomas Y. Crowell Co. 1952. 192 pp. \$2.75. Although Dwight D. Eisenhower has frequently expressed his thoughts on vital national and international issues in speeches delivered since the end of World War II, never before have the principles that would guide him as a leader of a nation been gathered together, organized, synthesized, and interpreted. Here, in this compact volume, taken from his own words, and arranged by subject, Eisenhower speaks on statism, partnership of labor and management, social reforms, pressure groups, racial questions and education. In the international field he gives his views on American foreign policy, military preparedness, Russia, communism, and the future of the world.
- TEALE, E. W. *North with the Spring*. New York 16: Dodd, Mead and Co. 1951. 384 pp. \$5.00. Spring means different things in different places; to most people, the first robin; to others, peepers, dogwood, strawberry shortcake, bluebirds. To everyone it brings a sense of excitement, adventure and movement.
- THOMAS, GWYN. *The World Cannot Hear You*. Boston 6: Little, Brown and Co. 1952. 288 pp. \$3.00. This book tells the story of the brothers Bodvan and Omri—particularly Omri, who is too meek to live, and of Picton the

go-getter, in a setting unsuited to go-getting; and of people like Cardoc Dando and Dencil and Miss Delphine Stringer, the preacher's daughter. It is the story of men crowded back to their basic human stuff by the very narrowness of their existence.

TOBEY, C. W. *The Return to Morality*. Garden City, N. Y.: Doubleday and Co. 1952. 123 pp. \$2.00. In the frank and direct manner which characterizes his vivid personality, Senator Charles W. Tobey, of New Hampshire, presents a scathing indictment of the present moral state of this nation. Appalled by the sordid and corrupt conditions which he finds throughout the United States, he probes deeply into the causes of this unhealthy decline in spiritual values, and offers a provocative solution.

TURNIGREN, ANNETTE. *The Mystery of Hidden Village*. New York 17: Thomas Nelson and Sons. 1951. 223 pp. \$2.00. A strange message to buy back a second hand car and drive it to Arizona sends Rusty Jerrold and her brother Nick on an odd cross-country trip, and starts a chain of events that nearly ends in tragedy on a dude ranch, the site of the lost Indian "diggings" known as Hidden Village.

*University Debaters' Annual: 1950-1951*. New York 52: H. W. Wilson Co. 1951. 256 pp. \$2.50. This 37th annual edition is a collection of verbatim reports of outstanding collegiate forensic activities. Bibliographies accompany each report and summaries are included for those activities conducted in the form of a debate. The eight issues presented in the book and all current, controversial and important, are: A Non-Communist World Organization; Rearming Western Germany; Youth and Defense; Outlawing the Communist Party; Loyalty Oaths; The Welfare State; The Brannan Plan; and Legalized Gambling. Five of these were "no decision" intercollegiate debates, one was a student-faculty debate, one a panel discussion, and one a discussion based upon earlier rounds of an intercollegiate debate and discussion conference. Four were recorded on tape or disks and one was broadcast. Although all may be studied as examples of various forensic types, they reveal something more; the keen interest on the part of American college students in the complex problems which seriously affect their own lives.

VERRILL, A. H. *The Strange Story of Our Earth*. Boston 8: L. C. Page and Co. 1952. 273 pp. \$3.75. This is a panorama of the growth of our planet as revealed by the sciences of geology and paleontology. Starting when our planet was little more than a molten ball whirling about in space, the author describes how the seas were formed, how land came into being and how the first life must have appeared on earth. From then to the coming of man he draws a dramatic picture of evolution and adaptation.

WALKER, DAVID. *The Pillar*. Boston 7: Houghton Mifflin Co. 1952. 313 pp. \$3.00. In this book the author deals with a complex and important theme—the unit of Comradeship which grew from the conflicts, irritations, attractions, and intimacies of six men, prisoners in Germany in the last war. Mark, the fanatically ambitious professional soldier; Peter, the soft, rich boy with a beautiful wife, who had to learn to "take it"; Bob, the practical, whose hands thought for him; Adrian, the cynical young intellectual; Keith, the smug and earnest, Busty, the middle-aged failure in the world, who found his integrity in the prison. These diverse men were by chance thrown together, and as the years rolled by, sometimes tense

with the excitement of an escape, often weary with idleness, these men became a family, more united than most real families and so more vulnerable finally to the blow which shattered the pillar of their comradeship.

WAYNE, RICHARD. *Wrong-Way Rookie*. Philadelphia: Macne Smith Co. 1952. 189 pp. \$2.50. When Willie Watson first appears at spring training as a candidate for pitcher with the Class D Rockets, he's also the most awkward ballplayer that Josh McLean, the manager, has ever seen. The other players quickly dub him "Wrong-Way Willie" and Manager McLean sends him back to his father's farm in short order. But this doesn't stop Willie. Each spring he turns up at a new ball club as a candidate for a different position on the baseball diamond. The payoff comes when Willie joins Josh McLean's major league Lions as a catcher, and through an odd set of circumstances becomes the hero and the sparkplug of this team.

*Webster's New World Dictionary of the American Language*. Encyclopedic Edition. Cleveland: World Publishing Co. 1951. Two volumes. 2106 pp. \$22.50. The average person in his daily reading encounters old words and new words whose meanings are not clear to him. Pick up a newspaper or any current best seller and in it will be found one or more of these words. Yet some of these words did not even exist as recently as 1948. Others have been in use for some time but have never before been recorded in a dictionary. These are entered and explained in the *Webster's New World Dictionary*. The furious pace at which changes are taking place at this point in history is matched by equally rapid changes in language. To keep up with the dynamic mid-20th-century calls for more than a "bringing up-to-date" of a horse-and-buggy dictionary.

In this dictionary every definition has been re-examined and freshly written. The great tradition of Noah Webster has been maintained, using a consistently modern approach to the vocabulary, grammar, and pronunciation of American English. Explaining the vocabulary items of this book in language that people use and understand took over 3,600,000 words of text. Some of the features of the two volume edition are: (1) "General American" pronunciation—the speech of 80% of America—in a simplified but precise key; (2) Fuller and more up-to-date etymologies than in any other American Dictionary; (3) More idioms, colloquialisms and slang terms than in any comparable dictionary; (4) Arrangement of all dictionary entries including abbreviations, names of people and places, etc., in a single alphabetical list; (5) A helpful and instructive "Guide to the English Language;" and (6) Clear-faced type, laid out in a modern format for reading ease.

All of the 1,249 illustrations are completely new, designed to show the object in use and to indicate its size. There are six full pages of Signs and Symbols, Forms of Address, and of black-and-white pictures, and twelve plates in full color, picturing natural phenomena. A frontispiece displays, in natural color, all the flags of the United Nations. There are 143 special silhouette maps to locate pertinent areas. Full-page charts give tables of basic English, world alphabets, geological and chemical information, and the periodic table of the elements. The supplementary Atlas contains new full-color maps of the entire world. The encyclopedic section includes complete texts of the Declaration of Independence, the Constitution, the Charter of the United Nations, a directory of colleges

and universities, common given names, weights and measures, signs and symbols, forms of address, and synonyms and antonyms. The 1950 U. S. Census figures and statistics are used.

WELLMAN, M. W. *The Haunts of Drowning Creek*. New York 11: Holiday House. 1951. 205 pp. \$2.50. Randy Hunter and Jebb Markum had no idea what they were in for when they started their canoe trip down Drowning Creek. They expected its overhung black waters to be wild and lonely and a little adventuresome. They were ready for that. But they didn't expect to become involved with a boy they didn't know, or to go on a wild chase after two men they had never seen. They weren't ready to accept the old story about Chimney Pot house and its lost Confederate gold. Most of all, they weren't prepared to find that the "haunts" had a very real basis in fact. But it all happened.

WILLOUGHBY, C. A. *Shanghai Conspiracy*. New York 10: E. P. Dutton and Co. 1952. 320 pp. \$3.75. How is the Red Army fighting the secret war on a world-wide scale? The author has the answer and General MacArthur considers it of the gravest importance to America. As MacArthur's Chief of Intelligence, the author had the unique opportunity to study the techniques and methods employed by the Soviet master-spy Richard Sorge. He describes the types of people who volunteer to take orders from Moscow, the way in which they operate under false names and passports, the kind of information they seek, as well as their mode of approach to men occupying important government positions. This book shows how Communists under the guise of idealism work with no scruples for the Red Army Intelligence, how they operate and how they manipulate innocent liberals to give aid and comfort to the enemy.

WILSON, C. G. *Guns in the Wilderness*. New York 19: Ives Washburn Inc. 1952. \$2.50. Noell Goffe is in hiding in England in the exciting days of 1665, because he and his uncle are being sought by the King's Agents for his family's part in the Cromwellian revolt against King Charles I. But once, after a hard fought duel, Uncle is caught; Noell escapes into the woods. It is the time of the Plague of London, when many would not open their doors to any one, so Noell has a hard time finding his uncle. When he does, they escape through the Great Fire of London to a ship bound for America. After a rough voyage, they reach the Colonies, where Noell hopes to find his missing grandfather. In the process of looking for him, however, he must fight many bands of Indians, for it is the time of the uprisings of the tribes under the leadership of the unruly "King" Philip.

———. *The Winds Blow Free*. New York 19: Ives Washburn Inc. 1950. \$2.50. History comes alive in this tale of momentous events at sea and ashore in the brave days of the American Revolution. With Roddy Rawley, Irish stowaway to Philadelphia in 1776, we sail for Europe under the command of Captain Gustavus Conyngham, to bring aid and supplies to the hard-pressed new nation. The story moves rapidly on, from daring encounters with the enemy at sea, to Paris and a meeting with Benjamin Franklin, to capture by a British man-of-war and imprisonment in England, to—well, let's not give it away.

WILSON, J. H. *Nell Gwyn, Royal Mistress*. New York 22: Pellegrini and Cudahy. 1952. 309 pp. \$4.00. History, as someone has remarked, can be fun. In this biography, the author gives an authentic picture of Restoration

England, for Neil was typical of this England, and for many years her career was closely linked with the troubled times of the period from 1660-1685. Here is Restoration England—its theatre, the incredible court of Charles II, and the private and public lives of the fantastic and colorful figures of the era. To the best of our knowledge, this is the first time an authentic and popular biography of Nell Gwyn has been done.

WILSON, N. C., and TAYLOR, F. J. *Southern Pacific*. New York 36: McGraw-Hill Book Co. 1952. 266 pp. \$3.50. This is the dramatic story of the biggest railroad in the West; the first to push across the Sierra, and the first to cross the prairies and deserts of the Southwest. Its story has all the driving ambition, the roughness, and the courage of the days when our country was growing and when it took hard and daring men to lead the way. Here is an exciting picture of a full century of conflict and achievement which began before the Civil War with the plans of a few farseeing men in Texas and Louisiana.

WINSLOW, MARY. *Woman At Work*. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press. 1952. 278 pp. \$3.50. This is the story of a remarkable woman whose life has been devoted to the betterment of working conditions for women. Mary Anderson was director of the Women's Bureau of the U. S. Department of Labor for twenty-five years, from shortly after its inception until her retirement in 1944. Her autobiography encompasses almost every movement in this country, and international efforts as well, for the benefit of women workers.

*Year Book and Guide to East Africa*. New York 52: H. W. Wilson Co. 1952. 451 pp. \$3.00. Africa remains the only continent where virtually all natives are under "white man supremacy." Egypt is protesting Great Britain's control of the Suez and Sudan. France's north African colonies are restless and the natives in virtually all Africa are asking for a greater voice in their own affairs. This *Guide* is not concerned with the social aspects of colonization. It is strictly a factual and fascinating wealth of facts and figures, maps, charts, and drawings highlighting and detailing vast areas too little known in this country. The *Guide* details the topography, climate, flora, fauna, mineral wealth, manufacturers, agricultural products, exports and imports, currencies, banking, and the like. In addition, paragraphs tell how to get there, what to see, what to wear, where to stay, what to pay and include local transportation, communications, etc. This *Guide* also contains a fold-in map, and many charts and drawings.

Many will find the sections in the *Guide* that are devoted to local governments and history of especial interest. The historical sketches involve early Indian navigators, the Arabs, the Turks, the Portuguese, the Spaniards, the French and the English. First one conquered and then the other. The *Guide* reports ruling governments as follows: Kenya, Uganda, Tanganyika, Zanzibar, Nyasaland, Portuguese East Africa, Sudan, Mauritius, Egypt, Eritrea, Somaliland, Ethiopia, Congo, Madagascar, and Reunion. Native labor receives considerable attention and realistic pictures depict steaming tropics and cool plateaus.

*Year Book and Guide to Southern Africa*. New York 52: H. W. Wilson Co. 1952. More than 908 pp. \$3.00. There is a significant statistic and an interesting fact for everyone in the *Guide*. It is a panorama of the world's last and largest undeveloped land mass. The major portion of the text is

devoted to the very important Union of South Africa, made up of Cape Province, Natal, Transvaal, and the Orange Free State. In addition, sections are devoted to Basutoland, Swaziland, Bechuanaland, the Rhodesias, South West Africa, and Angola. This *Guide* presents chronological tables (from B. C. to date) and historical sketches, tables of imports and exports and manufactures, agricultural reports, and interesting comments such as the fact that ground nuts (peanuts) are a profitable crop, and that most everything grown in this country flourishes in South Africa.

Here one finds that climatically South Africa is delightful. Johannesburg, which is typical, has a mean average temperature of just over 60 degrees with 40 degrees unusual. Kruger National Park covering 8,000 square miles is the world's largest. Here can be seen elephants, hippopotamus, giraffes, baboons, lions, leopards, cheetah, hyenas, ostriches, pythons, and scores of other animals roaming in their natural habitat. The gold and diamond mines of South Africa are fabulous, but the country is exceedingly wealthy in many other minerals some still to be exploited. Charts and tables locate them and give details.

YOST, EDNA. *Modern American Engineers*. Philadelphia 5: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1952. 192 pp. The need for young people in the engineering profession today is greater than ever before in our history, and starting salaries in the profession are at a correspondingly high level. The high-school boy or girl, or the college student attracted to engineering as a career will find inspiration and guidance in this book of successful careers in many fields of engineering. Here are the stories of a dozen men who have achieved signal success, including, among others: Robert E. Doherty of Carnegie Institute of Technology, Pittsburgh; Vannevar Bush of Carnegie Institution, Washington; Ole Singstad, Engineer of the Holland Tunnel; and U. S. Senator Ralph Flanders of Vermont. Each story gives the boyhood education of the man, his professional training and path to success, how he chose his specialty, and his current achievements.

### Pamphlets for Pupil and Teacher Use

*Annual Report to Stockholders*. New York 22: Columbia Broadcasting System. 485 Madison Ave. 1951. 56 pp. A summary of past achievements and future plans of CBS which reveals the expansion and integration of related operations in the field of electronics.

*Annual Report of the Superintendent of Schools of Cincinnati (1950-1951)*. Cincinnati, O.: Superintendent of Schools. 1951. 48 pp. Statistical supplement.

*Annual Report to the Trustees*. Princeton, N. J.: Educational Testing Service, 20 Nassau St. 105 pp. Report for 1950-51 on administration, finance, projects, and personnel.

*Areas of Needed Research Interest in the Language Arts*. Chicago 21: National Council of Teachers of English, 211 W. 68th St. 1952. 36 pp. 50¢. Needed research in language expression, reading, speech, and listening.

BACMEISTER, R. W. *Your Children's Manners*. Better Living Series. Chicago 10: Science Research Associates, 57 W. Grand Ave. 1952. 40¢ each; 3 for \$1.00; quantity discounts. A guide for teaching youth manners which bases training on the friendliness inherent in youth so that good manners



will stem from natural consideration of others and will not be a superficial form of learned unnatural behavior.

*Bibliography on Supervision and Curriculum Development.* Washington 6, D. C.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development. N.E.A. 1952. 17 pp. 50¢. This is a listing of the significant books published in the last ten years.

BOULWARE, L. R. *What to Do about Communism in Unions.* New York: Employee and Plant Community Relations Services Division. 1952. 22 pp. A letter to Senator Humphrey and the Senate Subcommittee on Labor and Labor-Management Relations expressing the company's opinion that the government rather than the employer or union is the only competent agency for objectively and authoritatively identifying and exposing enemy agents in labor unions.

*Building a Mutual Defense.* Washington 25, D. C.: Supt. of Documents. 1952. 99 pp. 35¢. A factual account and summary of progress of the Mutual Defense Assistance Program.

*Bulletin of Education.* Lawrence, Kans.: School of Education, University of Kans. Feb. 1952. 56 pp. Contents: Experiential Needs of Student Teachers, Comparison of Grades of Lettermen and Non-Lettermen, Guilford-Zimmerman Temperament Survey, Comparison of High School Drop-Outs and Stay-Ins, Teacher and Librarian Work Together.

*The Business of Education.* Tulsa, Okla.: Supt. of Schools. 1952. Up-to-date information in the form of charts, graphs, and tables to acquaint citizens, particularly a visiting delegation from business and industry, of the facts and problems confronting the city's educational system.

*Catalog.* Chicago 10: Science Research Associates, 57 W. Grand Ave. 1952. Classified descriptive listing of publication of SRA.

*1952 Catalog of Co-operative Tests.* Princeton, N. J.: Educational Testing Service, 20 Nassau St. 1952. 84 pp. Tests, programs, and services available. Fully descriptive, including prices.

CHARTERS, W. W. *Opportunities for the Continuation of Education in the Armed Forces.* Washington 6, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1785 Mass. Ave., N. W. 1952. 72 pp. 50¢. Findings and recommendations of the USAFI Evaluation Study of 1951.

*Citizens and Their Schools.* New York 36: The National Citizens Commission for the Public Schools, 2 W. 45th St. 1952. 27 pp. Report of a two-day citizens assembly on education in St. Louis during January 1952.

CLARK, T. B. *What Is Honesty?* Life Adjustment Series. Chicago 10: Science Research Associates, 57 W. Grand Ave. 40¢ each; 3 for \$1.00; quantity discounts. Attempts to give young people a deeper understanding and appreciation of honesty as it operates in everyday life, and suggests how the problem of dishonesty among school groups and individuals may be attacked.

CLINCHY, R. J. *Human Rights and the United Nations.* Irvington-On-Hudson, New York: The Foundation for Economic Education, Inc. 1952. 46 pp. Single copy free. An argument against the adoption of the International Covenant on Human Rights.

*The College Board Review.* New York 27: College Entrance Examination Board, 425 W. 117th St. Feb. 1952. 25¢. (Subscription, per year, 50¢) This issue contains: "Who Should Go to College in America," "Adventures of

an Examiner in Language Testing," and "Essay vs. Objective Testing in Social Studies." Also services, dates, and publications of CEEB.

Committee for Economic Development, 444 Madison Ave., New York 22, Publications of:

*CED and Economic Education in the Public Schools.* 8 pp. A brief account of the movement to raise the level of economic education in the public schools.

*Statements by Marion B. Folsom and J. Cameron Thomson.* 29 pp. Before the Subcommittee on General Credit Control and Debt Management of Congress.

Conference Board of Associated Research Councils, Committee on International Exchange of Persons, 2101 Constitution Ave., Washington 25, D. C., Publications of:

*The Fulbright Program.* Summary statement including terms of awards and application procedures.

*Awards for East Asia and the Pacific.* Detailed list.

*Awards for Europe and the Near East.* Detailed list.

*Supplemental Announcements.* Additional information relating to the program. (A booklet on the program and foreign scholars in the U. S. is in preparation.)

*A Curriculum United on the Conservation of Natural Resources.* Sacramento, Calif.: State Dept. of Education. Jan. 1952. 79 pp. Objectives, methods, and materials for a study of conservation of natural resources.

*Discriminations in Higher Education in the Mountain States Region.* Denver 10, Colo.: A. L. Campa, Dept. of Modern Languages, University of Denver. 1951. 37 pp. 35¢. Addresses, recommendations, working papers, reference materials, etc., of the Denver Conference of the Mountain States Committee for Equal Opportunity for Education on February 10, 1951.

*Eleventh Semiannual Report of the Atomic Energy Commission.* Washington 25, D. C.: Supt. of Documents. 1952. 211 pp. Major activities in atomic energy programs, July-December 1951, atomic energy and plant science, condensed financial report for fiscal year, 1951.

*Employment Qualifications of ACLS Scholars.* Washington 6, D. C.: Secretary for Fellowships, American Council of Learned Societies, 1219 16th St., N. W. 1952. 16 pp. Brief statements about scholars available for academic positions next year.

*The English Record.* Hamilton, N. Y.: Colgate University. Winter 1952. Contributions are concerned with curriculum study on language arts, the place of spelling, etc.

*Enlightenment Through Exposure.* New York 20: National Broadcasting Co., RCA Building, Radio City. 1952. Mr. Sylvester L. Weaver, Vice President in Charge of Television at NBC, re-iterates the credo that has guided the programming decisions of NBC television in its growth over the past few years.

*Films from Britain.* New York 20: British Information Services, 30 Rockefeller Plaza. 1952. 27 pp. Catalog, classified and illustrated.

*First Report to Congress on the Mutual Security Program.* Washington 25, D. C.: Supt. of Documents. 1951. 81 pp. Reviews steps being taken to build up strength of free world. Graphic and tabulated data.

- FISHBIN, MORRIS, and IRWIN, L. W. *First-Aid Training*. Chicago: Lyons and Carnahan. 1951. 232 pp. A study and practice book organized in 15 units, with emphasis on safety and safe emergency care. Each unit has background material in concise and understandable form. Activities stress identification, causes, and proper treatment.
- A Five-Year Summary Progress Report of the Cancer Control Branch (1947-51)*. Bethesda 14, Md.: Federal Security Agency, U. S. Public Health Service, National Institute of Health. 1952. 8 pp. Financial aid, services and special projects, cancer education, and epidemio-statistical activities are discussed in brief.
- Growing Up in Brooklyn*. Brooklyn 17, N. Y.: Brooklyn Council for Social Planning, 30 Third Ave. 1951. 94 pp. \$1.00. A report of Brooklyn's "Little White House Conference on Children and Youth."
- Handbook for Teaching Piano Classes*. Chicago 4: Music Educators National Conference, 64 E. Jackson Blvd. 1952. 87 pp. \$1.50. A discussion of teacher preparation, equipment, teaching materials, lesson outlines, and integration of group piano instruction in schools at all levels.
- Handbook on 16mm. Films for Music Education*. Chicago 4: Music Educators National Conference, 64 E. Jackson Blvd. 1952. \$1.50. This is a classified and annotated list of films for music education.
- HEATON, M. M. *Feelings Are Facts*. New York 16: National Conference of Christians and Jews, Commission on Educational Organizations, 381 4th Ave. 1951. Relates the improvement of intergroup relations to fundamental principles of mental hygiene.
- HERZBERG, M. J.; GUILD, F. C.; HOOK, J. N. *Workbook for Better English (Grade Seven)*. Boston 17: Ginn and Co. 1952. 172 pp. 88¢. In addition to drill on the usual words, punctuations, and structure, there are practical chapters on speaking effectively, conducting school clubs, enjoying movies and broadcasts, using the library, carrying on school business, studying, using newspapers and magazines, conducting discussions, and oral and written social forms.
- Illinois Authors*. Urbana, Ill.: Illinois English Bulletin, 121 Lincoln Hall. March 1952. 24 pp. 25¢. The story of a project of the Illinois Association of Teachers of English—the construction of a literary map of the state. Also contains Part I, brief information about authors whose names appear on the literary map. (Part II contains an additional list of writers whose names were not included on the map.)
- Improving Citizenship Education*. New York, N. Y.: Citizenship Education Project, Teachers College, Columbia University. 1952. 44 pp. A two-year progress report of the citizenship education project.
- International Documents Service, Columbia University Press, 2960 Broadway, New York 27, N. Y., Publications of:
- For Trust Territories*. 24 pp. 15¢.
- The International Court of Justice*. 27 pp. 15¢.
- A Series of Film Strips*. List free.
- International P.E.N. Bulletin of Selected Books*. London, S. W. 3: Editor, P.E.N. Bulletin, 62 Gledbe Place. A new quarterly periodical whose purpose is to contribute to the international exchange of ideas and to the understanding of peoples of each other. Published with the assistance of UNESCO. Books published in France, Great Britain, and the United States

of America are not commented upon in the *Bulletin* so that all space available should be at the disposal of literatures which have less opportunity of being brought to the notice of an international forum. Technical books and textbooks are not within its scope. Poetry and drama are given less space than other categories of literature, since the International Theatre already provides intercommunication and special problems are involved in the translations of verse.

*International Workshop on Guidance.* Frankfurt, Germany: Office of Public Affairs, Education and Cultural Relations Division, Education Branch, Office of the U. S. High Commissioner for Germany, Dec. 1951. 171 pp. The workshop as in-service teacher education. Principles and practices of guidance and their application to special school types and specific problems of implementation.

*Keep Them Free.* Columbus 15, O.: Ohio C.I.O. Council, 218 E. State St. To show the face and nature of attacks against the schools and to reassert faith in the basic purposes of education in a democratic society, the story of Ohio State University is told.

*Liberation and Union.* Washington, D. C.: Freedom and Union. 1952. 24 pp. 25¢. A symposium on the future of Danubian Federation and Atlantic Union.

*Loyalty in a Democracy.* New York 16: Public Affairs Committee, 22 E. 38th St. 1952. 32 pp. 25¢. The report summarizes the various viewpoints of a score of experts brought together by the Committee to consider the implications of the loyalty issue for our democratic institutions.

*Man's Loyalties and the American Ideal.* Albany 1, N. Y.: State Univ. of New York. 1951. 136 pp. Proceedings of a symposium having such speakers as Henry Steele Commager, Eric Sevareid, and other nationally and internationally known figures.

*Maps, Globes, Charts (1952 Catalog).* Chicago 18: A. J. Nystrom and Co., 3333 Elston Ave. 1952. 37 pp. Descriptive, illustrated, indexed. Various projections; desk, wall, and blackboard outline maps; simplified series; algebra, social studies, science charts; physiographic diagrams; globes; and mountings.

MCCUTCHAN, GORDON, and CAUDILL, W. W. *An Experiment in Architectural Education Through Research.* College Station, Tex.: Texas Engineering Experiment Station, Texas A. and M. College. Nov. 1951. 64 pp. A research report on designing a schoolroom for best natural lighting and ventilation.

MITCHELL, C. C. *Land Reform in Asia.* Washington 6, D. C.: National Planning Association, 800 21st St., N. W. Feb. 1952. 34 pp. 50¢. A case study of problems of land management in Japan and Korea.

*The Multiple Screening Idea.* New York 17: Health Information Foundation, 420 Lexington Ave. 1952. 18 pp. A summary of a Multi-Test Clinic sponsored at Richmond, Virginia.

Mutual Security Agency, Washington 25, D. C., Publications of:

*Dateline—Saigon.* 12 pp.

*Mutual Security—Asia.*

*O.E.E.C. Wheel.*

*A Report to You.* (on Europe). 15 pp.

*Shirtsleeve Diplomats.*

*The Working People of Europe.*

- Mutual Security Program, Message of the President for Fiscal Year ending June 30, 1953.* Publication 4531. Washington 25, D. C.: Group Relations Branch, Division of Public Liaison, Dept. of State. 1952. 34 pp. Free.
- The National Conference of Christians and Jews, 381 Fourth Ave., New York 16, N. Y., Publications of:
- ALLPORT, G. W. *The Resolution of Intergroup Tensions.* 48 pp. 25¢.
- STOREN, H. F. *Readings in Intergroup Relations.* 35 pp. 25¢.
- Newcomb's Back in School.* East Orange, N. J.: Board of Education. 1952. 35 pp. An annual report with a popular appeal.
- Our Foreign Policy.* Washington 25, D. C.: Supt. of Documents. 1952. 79 pp. 25¢. In one hour's reading time, you can find out (1) the basic principles of our foreign policy, (2) the application of those principles in troubled areas, and (3) the way foreign policy is made and who makes it.
- Paths to World Peace.* New York 10: Subscription Service, Scholastic Magazines, 351 Fourth Ave. 1952. 20¢. A special supplement on international organization published as Part II of the February 20 issue of *Scholastic Magazines*.
- PICKETT, A. F., and KNAUFF, M. E. *The Secondary School Curriculum.* Irvington 11, N. J.: Irvington High School. 1951. 54 pp. \$1.00. An annotated bibliography.
- The National Foundation for Infantile Paralysis, 120 Broadway, New York 5, N. Y., Publications of:
- Polio myelitis.* (1) *A Source Book for High-School Students and (2) Teacher's Guide.*
- Polio Research.*
- Polio Pointers.*
- What to Do about Polio.*
- Popular Government.* Chapel Hill, N. C.: University of North Carolina, Institute of Government. March 1952. 16 pp. 25¢. (Yearly subscription, \$2.00). This issue is concerned chiefly with traffic problems. Somewhat localized.
- Projected Manpower Requirements and Supply (1952-1953).* (Manpower Report No. 14). Washington 25, D. C.: Dept. of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics. Jan. 1952. 9 pp. Free. The estimates of manpower requirements based on present schedules for defense production and military recruitment and on the assumption that output for civilian use will be maintained at the highest levels consistent with the priority given to the defense program.
- The 1952 'PR' Guide. Washington 6, D. C.: Division of Press and Radio Relations, N.E.A., 1201 16th St., N. W. 1952. 32 pp. 15¢. Lists more than 150 books, pamphlets, leaflets, motion pictures, filmstrips, radio transcriptions, radio scripts, and national organizations helpful in planning a school public relations program.
- The Record.* Washington 25, D. C.: Division of Publications, Dept. of State. A bi-monthly magazine of developments in the field of international co-operation in fields of education, culture, science, and technology as an arm of U. S. foreign policy. The Jan.-Feb. 1952 issue contains, in part, an article about Copenhagen by Ambassador Eugenie Anderson, a story about a village improvement program in Iran, information about the world health program in Latin America, and items on aid to Formosa, India, and elsewhere.

- Report of the Committee to Study Staff Relations in the New York City Schools.* New York City: Theodore H. Lang, Board of Education. 1952. 16 pp. Outlines procedures open to staff members with complaints and procedures to promote staff participation in pedagogic and administrative policy matters.
- Report of the Eighth Annual Conference (Year Book).* Oxford, England: Association of Art Institutions, Hon. Sec. J. H. Brookes, Cowley Road. 1952. 48 pp. Addresses on the Ministry's art examinations, the art teachers' diploma, and book printing today.
- Résumé of the Proceedings of the Eighteenth National Conference on Labor Legislation.* Washington 25, D. C.: Bureau of Labor Standards, Dept. of Labor. 1952. 56 pp. Labor problems in a defense economy constituted the theme of the conference.
- School Housing for Physically Handicapped Children.* Washington 25, D. C.: Supt. of Documents. 1951. 26 pp. 15¢. Needs and provisions for children with visual and auditory impairments, speech defects, and special health problems.
- Sources of Business Education Materials.* Cedar Falls: Mimeograph Dept., Iowa State Teachers College. 1952. 21 pp. 30¢. A classified listing of professional books, textbooks, resource units, pamphlet series, tests, audio-visual materials, free and inexpensive materials, and bibliographical lists.
- Specialized Services.* Cincinnati, O.: Supt. of Schools. Annual report for 1950-1951, interpreting a single area of the work and activities of the Cincinnati Schools—special education.
- STAPLEY, M. E. *Story of a Workshop.* Bloomington: Indiana University Bookstore, Jan. 1952. 47 pp. \$1.00. A detailed account of a workshop experience. Describes planning, organization, and procedures.
- STRANG, RUTH. "Concerted Action for and with Rural Youth." (Reprinted from *The Educational Record*. October 1951) Washington 6, D. C.: The American Council on Education, 1785 Mass. Ave., N. W. 14 pp. Based on two conferences directly or indirectly related to the Midcentury White House Conference on Children and Youth.
- Studies in Education (1951).* Bloomington: Indiana University Bookstore. 1952. 195 pp. \$1.00. Abstracts of theses on a wide range of educational topics.
- The Study Hall in Texas High Schools.* Austin: Texas Study of Secondary Education, Sutton Hall 217, University of Texas. 1952. 28 pp. 50¢. A study of characteristics and trends of Texas high schools.
- Studying in Germany.* New York, N. Y.: German-American Trade Promotion Co., 350 Fifth Ave. 1952. 44 pp. Historical notes, pictures, and a pictorial map along with pertinent descriptions of facilities for study in Germany today.
- Suggested Activities for Mentally Retarded Children.* Sacramento: California State Dept. of Education. Jan. 1952. 106 pp. Illustrates curriculum adjustments made by teachers of special classes for exceptional children.
- Suggested School Health Policies.* New York 14: Health Education Council, 10 Downing St. 1945. 30¢. A guide to those concerned with school and community health. Reference to health instruction, services, personnel, etc.

(Continued on page 316)

## News Notes

**THE NEA TRAVELER.**—In 1952 the NEA traveler is offered a program which extends from Hawaii to Italy and from Alaska to Peru. In addition, a plan for independent travel is being offered for the first time over many of the regular tour routes. That is, you may travel in a group with the benefits of a tour director or you may travel independently with a friend or two. For further information on the tours or concerning the independent travel plan, write to the NEA Travel Division, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington 6, D. C.

**PROFESSIONAL SALARY SCHEDULES SHOULD MEET THESE TESTS.**—

(1) Minimum salaries should be high enough to attract well-educated, promising young people to the teaching profession. (2) Maximum salaries should be high enough to retain highly competent and professionally ambitious men and women in classroom teaching. (3) Equity of treatment to classroom teachers of like qualifications and experience is essential. (4) Annual increments should provide an orderly progress to the maximum salary. (5) The salary schedule should offer professional stimulation, through incentives in recognition of professional qualifications. (6) Salary schedules should be adjusted periodically, with due consideration for trends in earnings in other professional occupations and for changes in the cost of living. (7) Salaries of professional school personnel other than classroom teachers should be scheduled in accordance with the principles that apply to classroom teachers, with suitable recognition of responsibilities and preparation for leadership. (8) There should be professional participation by classroom teachers in the development and administration of salary policies.

**A NEW STATE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION PUBLICATION.**—The New York State Education Department has recently begun a new four-page publication, *Schools in Action*. The first edition appeared in November, 1951. The publication is issued four times during the school year—November, January, March, and May by the Bureau of Curriculum Development, Division of Secondary Education, State Education Department, Albany 1, New York. As the name indicates, the publication will contain reports for schools of the state. Upon request, a limited number of this publication is available free to persons outside New York state.

**MUSIC EDUCATORS NATIONAL CONFERENCE.**—More than 6,000 music teachers in colleges, universities, and public and private schools throughout the nation attended the 32nd annual meeting of the Music Educators National Conference in Philadelphia, March 21-26. The Conference is a Department of the National Education Association. The six-day program of the convention covered topics ranging from rhythm studies for elementary pupils to international relations in music education. The convention theme of "Music in American Education" emphasized the importance of keeping music instruction in step with the changing curriculum and the part music plays in community life.

This biennial convention of the Music Educators was held in co-operation with the National School Band, Orchestra, and Vocal Association; the Col-



lege Band Directors National Association; and the Music Education Exhibitors Associations. Others participating in the program included school administrators, directors of school curriculums, music educators and their pupils and performing groups, members of the music industry, and representatives of education systems in Belgium, England, Canada, Australia, West Africa, Japan, Turkey, France, Wales, Austria, and Sweden. In addition to the general sessions and special discussion groups scheduled, the convention featured all types of musical performance varying from hymn singing to a concert by the Philadelphia Orchestra.

Among the various topics discussed in special meetings were: allotments of critical materials and school music programs, music education in the community, music trends in secondary schools, music in the rural school, what teen-agers do not like about piano study, what music ought to do for a community, and television-radio in music education.

**GUIDANCE CONVENTION.**—Secondary-school teachers, counselors, and administrators found much of value and interest in the Convention of the Council of Guidance and Personnel Associations held in Los Angeles, March 31-April 3. The convention theme was "Improving Human Relations." Nine national groups participated in the Convention. They were: Alliance for Guidance of Rural Youth, American College Personnel Association, National Association of Deans of Women, National Association of Guidance Supervisors, National Vocational Guidance Association with the co-operation of Altrusa International Inc., Eastern College Personnel Officers, Personnel Section, American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, and Western Personnel Institute.

Some of the programs of special interest to secondary-school people were: "Counselors and Student Personnel Administrators Look at Each Other's Functions," "How to Design Research to Investigate Student Personnel Problems," "Interpreting the Results of Guidance Tests to Students," "How May Teachers and Counselors Work Together More Effectively?," "Parent Education and the Secondary School," "The Problem of Drop-Outs and Follow-up," and "Enriching the Secondary-School Extraclass Activities." The National Association of Deans of Women had a high-school and a junior high-school section, both of which met on two consecutive days.

**TWENTY-SIX SAFE DRIVERS.**—The Driver Education Class of the Newton High School has scored 100% for the second time since formation of the class five years ago. The first behind-the-wheel group of the 1951 class had twenty-six students examined for a driver's license and all passed with flying colors. Before each student is examined for his Massachusetts driver's license, he must go through a rigorous course of five weeks in the classroom and seven weeks of actual experience behind-the-wheel. During the road experience, each pupil masters all phases of driving. Proper attitudes for safe driving are continually stressed. An inspector of the Registry of Motor Vehicles commented after examining these twenty-six students, "This is one of the best high-school groups that I have worked with this year; these boys and girls should make excellent and safe drivers on our crowded streets."—*Newton School Age*.

**GOVERNMENT AERONAUTICAL SERVICES.**—The Federal Security Agency, of the U. S. Office of Education, Washington 25, D. C., under the direction of

Willis C. Brown, Specialist for Aviation Education, at the request of the National Aviation Education Council, has prepared a 10-page publication of the aeronautical resources available from government agencies for the use of teachers of elementary and secondary schools. This information is arranged in three sections: Services, Publications, and Visual Aids. Under each section, the following is given: a brief description of the offerings of these agencies; whether there is a charge or the offering is free; and how and where it is available. In requesting materials or services, write direct to the agency, using complete address, including both division and department of the government under which they are listed.

THE INSTITUTE ON THE POSITION OF THE UNITED STATES IN WORLD AFFAIRS.—The Eighth Annual Session of the Institute on the Position of the United States in World Affairs will be held in Washington, D. C., during the summer of 1952. This Institute is sponsored jointly by The American University and Civic Education Service, both of which are located in the nation's capital. While most of the meetings of the Institute will be held on the campus of The American University, arrangements will be made to hold some meetings in various government buildings, in the buildings of the Pan American Union, at the National Airport, and in other appropriate places that may be available. The final week of the Institute session will be held in New York City where the activities of the United Nations Organization and certain supplementary associations will be studied.

The 1952 session of the Institute will start with an informal tea and reception in Mary Graydon Hall on the late afternoon of Sunday, June 15. An ambassador from another country and certain members of his staff will be invited to attend as guests of honor at this affair. The regular meetings of the group will begin on Monday, June 16, and will continue for a period of six weeks, ending on July 25.

The American University grants six graduate credits to those students who enroll for the entire six-weeks period of the Institute and who complete the program of work satisfactorily. Four credits can be earned by those who do the work of any four consecutive weeks in the Institute program. A few undergraduate students may be enrolled under special circumstances. A limited number of auditors may be admitted to the Institute, but do not earn credits. The Director of the 1952 Session of the Institute will be Samuel Engle Burr, Jr. who is chairman of the Department of Education at The American University. The two Co-Chairmen will be Pitman B. Potter, Dean of the Graduate Division of The American University, and Walter E. Myer, Director of Civic Education Service.

The tuition rate for the Institute is \$80.00 for the full period of six weeks. Auditors are admitted at the rate of \$15.00 per week for tuition. These amounts do not include transportation, meals, or rooms; nor do they cover the additional costs incurred in the trip to the United Nations headquarters. The estimated cost of the trip to U. N. Headquarters, including railroad fare, hotel room, and meals is about \$60.00. This trip to New York City is scheduled for the week of July 19 through July 25.

All inquiries, enrollments, and other correspondence concerning the Institute should be addressed to: Dr. Samuel Engle Burr, Jr., Director, The Institute on the Position of the United States in World Affairs, The American University, Washington 16, D. C. Early registration is advised, wherever

possible, although applicants for admission to the Institute will be accepted up to the opening date, if vacancies remain up to that time. Campus rooms will be assigned in the order that applications are received.

During the six summers that this Institute already has been operating, approximately 600 teachers, principals, professors, and librarians have enrolled in its various annual sessions. They have come from forty-six states, one territory, and three foreign countries. An attractive printed circular, describing the work of the 1952 session of the Institute, is available for free distribution. Requests for copies should be addressed to the Director. School and College administrators can secure a supply of these circulars for further distribution among their faculty and staff members.

#### MAGAZINE ARTICLES OF INTEREST TO THE BUSY SCHOOL ADMINISTRATOR.—

- "Graduates and Drop-Outs in Virginia" by Leonard M. Miller. *School Life*. March 1952. P. 87.
- "Effect of Television on School Achievement of Children" by Franklin Dunham. *School Life*. March 1952. P. 88-89.
- "Evaluating School Public Relations" by Peter C. McConarty. *The Massachusetts Teacher*. March 1952. P. 5-6.
- "Outline of a Program for Music Education." *Music Educators Journal*. September-October 1951. P. 53-54. (Pre-school, kindergarten, first-grade to grade 12)
- "Student Assistants for the Substitutes" by Irwin Sokol. *The Clearing House*. February 1952. P. 328-330.
- "The Good and Bad Points of Four Teaching Methods" by Clarence C. Moore. *The Clearing House*. February 1952. P. 340-344.
- "Meeting the Attacks on Education." (The entire content of the January 1952 issue devoted to this subject) *Progressive Education*.
- "Education for Citizenship." (The entire content of the December, 1951, issue devoted to this subject) *The Phi Delta Kappan*.
- "What Are the Basic Skills?" by Chandos Reid. *Progressive Education*. October 1951. P. 1-6.
- "How Well are Schools Teaching the Fundamentals?" by Lowry W. Harding. *Progressive Education*. October 1951. P. 7-14.
- "Problems of New High School Principals." *Teachers College Record*. February 1952. P. 283-284.
- "Orientation of Pupils for the Secondary School." *The National Elementary Principal*. (The entire content of the February, 1952 issue devoted to this subject)
- "What Homeroom Teachers Should Know" by G. G. Santavicca. *Occupations*. February, 1952. P. 351-55.
- "Toward Better Relationships Between Junior Colleges and High Schools" by B. Lamar Johnson. *The School Review*. February, 1952. P. 77-83.
- "An Objective Evaluation of A Core Program" by B. E. Capehart, Allen Hodges, and Norman Berdan. *The School Review*. February, 1952. P. 84-89.
- "Desirable Traits of Successful Teachers" by Menato Mazzei. *The Journal of Teacher Education*. December 1951. P. 291-294.
- "Relating the High-School Program to the Needs of Adolescents." *The High School Journal*. (The entire content of the December 1951, issue devoted to this subject)

- "Clerical Services in Junior High School" by Henry R. Sehmman. *Educational Press Bulletin*. November 1951. P. 19-24.
- "Building an Effective Junior High School Club Program." *High Points*. November 1951. P. 42-44.
- "Symposium on Conservation Education." *California Journal of Secondary Education*. (Most of the February 1952, issue devoted to this subject)
- "Symposium on the Junior High School." *California Journal of Secondary Education*. March 1952.
- "Teaching Democracy in the School Camp" by Ben Solomon. *Youth Leaders Digest*. November 1951. P. 45-52.
- "Citizens Organize for Better Schools." *Citizens and Their Schools*. January 1952.
- "Industrial Education Advances the 'Framework' Principles" by Melvin L. Barlow. *California Schools*. December 1951. P. 423-435.
- "Ethical Standards in American Public Life." *The Annals*. (The entire content of the March 1952, issue is devoted to this subject)
- "Core Curriculum: Why and What?" by Grace S. Wright. *School Life*. February 1952. P. 71.
- "Problems of a New Principal" by John W. Butler. *Educational Press Bulletin*, published by the Superintendent of Public Instruction, Springfield, Illinois. February 1952. P. 16-20.

STUDIES IN SECONDARY EDUCATION.—The School of Education of Indiana University, Bloomington, Indiana, has recently published abstracts of theses under the title of *Studies in Education, 1951*. This 195-page publication, available at \$1 per copy from the Indiana University Bookstore, Bloomington, Indiana, contains abstracts of thirty theses of which the following ten are related to secondary education: "The Growth and Development of Public Relations in Public Secondary Schools of the United States, 1920-1948" by F. W. Bainbridge II; "The Relationship Between the Problems of Beginning Business Education Teachers and Their Experiences in General and Special Methods Courses" by J. T. Blandford; "The Relative Importance of Topics of High School News" by J. J. Jelinek; "The Organization and Administration of Student Teaching in the Preparation of Secondary-School Teachers in the Privately Endowed Colleges of Liberal Arts in Indiana" by C. G. Lawrence; "A Study of Seventh-Day Adventist Secondary Schools in the United States" by R. G. Manalaysay; "Characteristics and Needs of Selected Ninth-Grade Pupils as a Basis for Curricular Changes to Meet Life Adjustment Needs" by R. H. Plummer; "The Basis for Developing a Program of Intercultural Education" by R. R. Polin; "A Recommended School Insurance Program for Florida" by E. J. Schuur; "A Study of the Instrumental Music Program in the High Schools of the State of Indiana" by M. F. Shadley; and "A Study of the Marion County Workshop Program for In-Service Teacher Education to Determine to What Extent Such a Program Followed Acceptable Principles of Operation, and to What Extent Objectives Were Achieved" by Leon Steele.

INDUSTRIAL ARTS AWARDS.—School-age craftsmen in every section of the country will match their skills in competition for prizes valued at more than \$45,000 in Ford Motor Company's 1952 Industrial Arts Awards program. Nation-wide in scope, the program is in its third year of Ford sponsorship.

Judging of entries will take place in July at Dearborn, Michigan. Thousands of students enrolled in shop, drawing, or printing classes in junior and senior high schools throughout the United States and its territories and possessions participate in the competition annually. Entrants can win prizes ranging from \$20 in cash to Outstanding Achievement Awards—all-expense-paid trips to Dearborn and Detroit for themselves and their teachers. A total of 1,462 individual awards will be made this year in four groups, ten divisions, and twenty-eight classifications. Outstanding Achievement Awards, restricted to one for each division in previous competitions, have been increased to thirty for 1952. In addition, ten of the thirty top-ranking finalists will be selected for Special Awards of \$200. Special Award winners will be chosen by a panel of judges on the basis of the merits of the projects and an informal interview with each of the students.

Sponsored by Ford to encourage industrial education, the Industrial Arts Awards program is open to pupils under 21 in grades seven through twelve of any school in the United States. Entries must be regular class projects made in school shops under the supervision of instructors. Projects will be rated on the national level only this year, with leading educators, industry representatives, and professional men serving as judges. Upon completion of the judging at Edison Institute and Greenfield Village, many of the entries will be placed on public exhibition in the Institute. Winning projects later will be sent to the Museum of Science and Industry at Chicago, Illinois, for display in the National Industrial Arts Awards Fair from August 1 to September 14.

Cash prizes will be awarded to winners of first, second, third, and fourth places and six honorable mentions in each group under each classification in the competition. The first prize is \$100; second, \$80; third, \$60; fourth, \$40; and honorable mention, \$20. The twelve entrants placing next in order after honorable mention winners will receive gold pins. Ford also will award Certificates of Merit to the students who gain recognition in the program and will present Certificates of Achievement to instructors whose students win prizes.

The ten general divisions in which entries will be accepted for judging in the Industrial Arts Awards program this year are wrought metal, pattern-making and molding, machine shop, wood, plastics, electrical, mechanical drawing, architectural drawing, printing, and an open division for all entries not eligible for the other nine categories. Assisting Ford Motor Company in conducting Industrial Arts Awards is a national advisory committee of fifty leaders in the industrial arts and vocational education fields.

**A STUDY OF THE CHIEF SCHOOL ADMINISTRATOR'S JOB.**—The job of the superintendent is getting a lot of attention in the Middle Atlantic Region CPEA. Last year, the Metropolitan School Study Council (MSSC) at Teachers College, Columbia University, conducted a self-study of the superintendent's job under the direction of Jerry Rast, Superintendent of Schools, Westport, Connecticut. His findings are described in the CPEA First Annual Report. State-wide studies of the job of the school superintendent are under way in Pennsylvania and New Jersey.

The Pennsylvania study of which Raymond H. Koch, District Superintendent in Hershey, Pennsylvania, is co-ordinator, includes one hundred six superintendents or fifty-six per cent of the total in the state. The co-operating districts are equally distributed throughout the state. There are

a total of thirty-four teams working on visitation. A report should be completed about June 30, 1952.

The New Jersey study will include virtually all of the state's 250 school districts which have either a superintendent or a supervising principal. Groups of four districts will be studied by a study team composed of three or four representatives from each of the four districts. The team of twelve to sixteen members will generally include superintendents, supervising principals, board members, and in a few pilot studies, professors of educational administration.

Study teams prepare job analyses of the educational administrator's job in the various districts. They stress the discovery of outstanding practices being used by superintendents in meeting local responsibilities and problems. Some questions which the committee hopes the study will answer are: What is the background and preparation of school superintendents and supervising principals? What is the relationship of school size and the administrators' problems and responsibilities? What are the major problems faced by the chief school administrator and what practices are being used to meet these problems? What factors should a board of education consider in the selection of a school superintendent? What criteria should be used in recruiting and selecting young people for administrative positions? How may schools of education improve programs to meet the preparation needs of superintendents?

**SUMMER SESSION.**—The University of San Carlos, Guatemala City, Guatemala, invites American students to attend its sixth annual summer session from July 7 to August 15, 1952, comprising a six-week course at the undergraduate and graduate levels for serious students. Courses offered include: Hispano-American Literature; Spanish Language, History, and Literature; Middle American Pre-history; Art and Anthropology, with special emphasis on the Maya Area of Guatemala, including field trips to archeological sites.

A conversational approach is stressed in beginning and intermediate language courses, together with intensive training in grammar, reading, and oral and written work. All advanced courses are taught in Spanish, with the exception of Anthropology, which is given in English for the convenience of advanced students in this field who have not sufficient knowledge of Spanish. Week-ends are free for inexpensive trips to the beautiful Guatemalan Highlands, picturesque Indian villages, Maya ruins, and charming Colonial centers. Travel is enhanced by a delightful climate, with summer temperatures seldom rising above 75 degrees. Transportation affords a choice of land, sea, or air travel. Room and board in Guatemalan homes averages about \$15.00 per week. The registration fee is \$5 and tuition for six units is \$60. For further information, write air mail to: the Secretary, San Carlos Summer School, Apartado 179, Guatemala, C. A.

**THE UNIVERSITY OF COIMBRA, PORTUGAL, SUMMER SCHOOL.**—A Summer School for Americans is to be held at Lisbon, Portugal, for six weeks from July 7 to August 15, 1952. The courses are fully accredited. All instruction will be by the regular faculty members of the University of Coimbra. Participation in the Coimbra Summer School program is offered on a *Forfait Complet*, or all-expense trip basis. This all-expense fee will include the following: round-trip by scheduled airline, New York to Lisbon; two nights stop-over

in Paris on the return trip (including transfers and room for the two nights); room and all meals for forty-four days; tuition and registration fees; two excursions; and all transfers connected with departures and arrivals on the program.

The Coimbra Summer School for Americans is offered under the auspices of the Ministry of Education of Portugal and the Richelieu Institute of University Studies Abroad. Dr. Miguel A. Otero, Director General of the Institute, is the originator of the courses. The courses are given on the same basis as those offered in any leading American university, the same semester hours, the same teaching techniques and examinations. Thus the problem of accreditation is removed and the student is relieved of all difficulties in obtaining and transferring credits. For further information and for catalogue and registration form write to the Richelieu Institute of University Studies Abroad, Suite 11-D, 300 Park Avenue, New York 22, New York, or The Institute, Box 1405, Beverly Hills, California.

UNIVERSITY OF HAVANA SUMMER SCHOOL.—The University of Havana announces its twelfth summer school session for foreigners, designed especially for North American teachers and students. It will be held at the University from July 7 to August 16, 1952, with registration from June 20 to July 5. Courses in the following subjects will be offered: Elementary and Intermediate and Advanced Spanish, Spanish Conversation, Spanish Pronunciation, Advanced Spanish Grammar, Method of Teaching Spanish, Commercial Spanish, Spanish Literature, Hispanic American Literature, Latin American History, Social, Political and Economic Science, Ethnography, Arts, National Science, and Cuban Folk Music. Some courses in the above general fields will be offered in English; the majority in Spanish. Extracurricular lectures by Cuban and Latin American scholars; visits to public buildings, places of historic interest, sugar mills, tobacco plantations; country trips; sports, cultural and social events will be offered to those attending the summer session. Further information may be obtained from the secretary of the Summer School, University of Havana, Havana, Cuba.

FOR GUIDANCE WORKER.—A new book for students and professionals in the guidance field, *Studying Students: Guidance Methods of Individual Analysis*, has been published as part of Science Research Associates' Professional Guidance Series. The book is written to help guidance workers learn the best techniques of individual counseling and to employ them most effectively. Scatter-diagrams, observation, observational records and their interpretation, fact-finding interviews and their follow-up and evaluation, self-report documents, measures of various abilities, indicators of personal and social adjustment—these are a few of the important methods discussed.

LIFE ADJUSTMENT EDUCATION.—The publication of a basic text for life adjustment education for high-school students, *About You*, has been announced by Science Research Associates, Chicago 10, Illinois. It is a functional approach to personality development and family life education, the aim of which is to foster emotional maturity as the basis for good family living. The workbook type of approach enhances the realistic nature of the material. This book is the first of a series of two books. The second will be devoted to marriage and parenthood.



EXTENT TO WHICH 519 SECONDARY SCHOOLS USE FOUR CORE  
OR CORE-TYPE PROGRAMS

Type of program	Per cent of schools using			
	Exclu- sively	In some classes	In most classes	Total
A. Each subject retains its identity in the core; that is, subjects combined in the core are correlated but not fused. For example, the teaching of American literature may be correlated with the teaching of American history. The group may be taught both subjects by one teacher or each subject by the appropriate subject teacher.....	31.6	13.1	8.9	53.6
B. Subject lines are broken down. Subjects included in the core are fused into a unified whole around a central theme; e.g. "Our American Heritage" may be the central theme for a core unifying American history and literature, and possibly art and music.....	15.6	20.0	7.3	42.9
C. Subjects are brought in only as needed. The core consists of a number of broad preplanned problems usually related to a central theme. Problems are based on predetermined areas of pupil needs, both immediate felt needs and needs as society sees them. For example, under the theme, Personal-Social Relations, there may be such problems as school citizenship, understanding myself, getting along with others, how to work effectively in group situations. Members of the class may or may not have a choice from among several problems; they will, however, choose activities within the problems.....	11.4	17.7	8.7	37.8
D. Subjects are brought in only as needed as in "C" above. There are no predetermined problem areas to be studied. Pupils and teacher are free to select problems upon which they wish to work.....	2.7	9.1	1.7	13.5

From *School Life*, February, 1952.

MONEY-MANAGING WORKSHOPS FOR 160 EDUCATORS.—Four universities will co-operate this summer in a program to encourage better teaching of family financial security in the nation's high schools and colleges as announced by the Committee on Family Financial Security Education, 488 Madison Avenue, New York 22, New York, of which Dr. Herold C. Hunt, General Superintendent of Schools in Chicago, is chairman. The four universities—Pennsylvania, Wisconsin, Connecticut, and Southern Methodist—will all hold "work-

shops" during the summer months of 1952 to be attended by high-school teachers, administrators, and faculty members of teacher training institutions, who will be recipients of scholarships awarded by the sponsoring universities. One of the purposes of the program will be to develop materials which these and other teachers throughout the United States can use to teach their students the fundamental principles of managing their incomes and saving money.

An outgrowth of two successful workshops sponsored by the Committee at the University of Pennsylvania in 1950 and 1951, which have already trained some 75 teachers, the present expanded program will make possible the training of some 160 additional teachers, principals, curriculum directors, supervisors, and faculty members of teacher training institutions. Scholarships which are to be awarded students attending the workshops have been made possible through grants to the universities by the Institute of Life Insurance. Dates for the four workshops are as follows: University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, June 30 to August 9; University of Wisconsin, Madison, June 30 to August 22; Southern Methodist University, Dallas, Texas, July 14 to August 8; and University of Connecticut, Storrs, August 4 to August 22.

Scholarships at the University of Pennsylvania workshop will include first-class rail transportation to and from Philadelphia and tuition charges. Teachers will pay for their own board and room. Scholarships of \$100 each, sufficient to cover the cost of tuition and rooms, will be awarded to those attending the University of Wisconsin workshop. Teachers will pay for their meals. Participants will be drawn chiefly from the North Central States. The workshop to be held at Southern Methodist University will serve chiefly the South West United States. Scholarships will include room and board for the duration of the course. Teachers will pay a tuition fee of \$40. Four semester hours will be awarded for successful completion of the workshop at S.M.U. Scholarships at the University of Connecticut will meet the costs of board and room for the students during their stay at Storrs. Participants will pay a tuition of \$40.

**CREDIT GIVEN FOR PARTICIPATION IN ACTIVITIES.**—One way of making pupil activities an integral part of the total school program is to give credit toward graduation for the participation in these activities, as is done with English, mathematics, and other course work. Such a policy tends to give the same prestige to these activities as to other aspects of the curriculum. Central High School, Aberdeen, South Dakota, has had such a plan for many years, pupils there being required to earn seventeen units for graduation. Sixteen units are earned through regular course work, while the seventeenth unit is for participation in extraclass activities. A point system has been formulated to compute credit toward the seventeenth unit, giving points for holding certain pupil offices and for participating in activities according to the amount of time which such participation requires. For instance, the editor-in-chief of the school paper would earn more points than one of the reporters. Pupils have three years to earn the seventeenth unit.

At Oakland High School, Oakland, California, pupils are required to earn twenty-four units, instead of the usual sixteen, for graduation. They receive credit for any activity that is carried on during the school day, which is six periods long. This includes study hall as well as extraclass activities. Thus, over a period of four years, the pupil may earn twenty-four units, six for each year.

It is perhaps unwise to attach too much importance to the giving of credit for participation in extraclass activities. Such a practice does not necessarily lead to better integration of pupil activities with the rest of the instructional program. School faculties should therefore explore other means for making these activities in every sense a part of the educational program of the school.—*Principles and Practices of Secondary Education* by Anderson, Grim, and Gruhn.

**HEALTH AS A REQUIREMENT FOR SUCCESSFUL TEACHING.**—Health in all its aspects is now considered to be fundamental to success in teaching. Health standards have been set up for admission to most professional schools for teachers, and good health is one of the requirements for teacher certification in a number of states of the United States and in all Canadian Provinces. Many local school systems have established even higher health standards for employment than States or Provinces require for certification. Although these standards deal for the most part with physical fitness and mental stability, there are numerous other virtues which are considered essential by almost everyone for genuinely successful teaching. These virtues, including a pleasing personality, sound ethical character, intellectual honesty, emotional stability, and the ability to work well with others, come under the heading of health in its broadest interpretation.

**NEED FOR TEACHERS OF EXCEPTIONAL PUPILS.**—The U. S. Office of Education is making a study this year of the qualifications and preparation of those needed to teach the nation's nearly 5,000,000 school-age exceptional children. The study has been made possible by a grant of \$25,500 from the Association for the Aid of Crippled Children, 580 Fifth Avenue, New York, New York. Chairman of the Office of Education policy committee for the study is Dr. Galen Jones, Director, Instruction, Organization and Services Branch of the Division of State and Local School Systems. Mr. Harley Wooden, Executive Secretary of the International Council for Exceptional Children, a department of the NEA, will serve as consultant. Chief emphases of the study will be upon the qualifications of teachers of exceptional children and the curricula of colleges offering courses for such teachers. Questions such as the following will be under consideration: What makes an effective teacher in this field? What special functions do such teachers perform? Which of these functions are common with those of other teachers? Which are distinctive? How can state and local standards contribute to the development of effective teachers? and What is the relationship between standards for certification of teachers and opportunities for preparation? The study is expected to extend over a period of one year. Progress reports and publications presenting study findings will be issued from time to time during the year.

**PART-TIME JOBS FOR YOUNG PEOPLE ARE INCREASING.**—An increasingly important part of units of instruction on family financial security is likely to be teaching the high-school youngster how to spend and save his own money more carefully. The employment of teen-age boys and girls after school and on Saturdays in America today is at one of the highest points in history and is likely to increase still more during the winter. No truly accurate estimates are available of exactly how many high-school students are now working or what their average income may be. The United States Census

early this year showed at least a third of all young people between the ages of 14 and 17 had some income of their own, and a 1949 Census estimate placed their average income at more than \$200 annually. But both these census figures will seem low indeed to many high-school teachers, who are finding the vast majority of their students earning money and earning considerably more, most of them, than the \$4 a week shown in the 1949 estimates.

As an indirect result of work carried on last summer at the annual workshop on family financial security held at the University of Pennsylvania, a survey of part of the senior class of the Bloomfield (N. J.) Senior High School was conducted by Dr. Harry M. Rice, member of the Committee on Family Financial Security Education, and principal of the High School. Out of the 154 questionnaires received from the Bloomfield students, exactly one boy and five girls reported that they had no part-time job and had not had any job during the summer. Everybody else either was working at the time the questionnaire was filled out or had earned money during the summer months. And wages received by those who reported their after-school and Saturday income, averaged nearly \$17 a week for boys and \$9.50 a week for girls.

**DROP-OUT FROM HIGH SCHOOLS.**—One out of four drop-outs leaves school in the ninth grade, and 37 per cent in the tenth grade. Consolidated high schools which often draw students from as many as twenty different elementary schools find the problem of student adjustment particularly acute. In some schools as many as 35 per cent of the pupils drop out in the first few weeks of school. Among students of normal intelligence, more ninth-grade failures occur when the ninth grade is the first year of high school than when it is part of the junior high school.—*Junior Guidance Newsletter*, Feb. 1952.

**50 PER CENT OF HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS LEAVE SCHOOL BEFORE GRADUATION.**—American high schools are only about 50 per cent successful in attracting and holding young people, according to Harold Hand, Professor of Education, University of Illinois. "One group of young people leave school because the supposedly free high school is literally loaded with hidden tuition costs," he stated. "Even at the depths of the great depression, it typically cost an average of \$125 per pupil per year. This did not include food, clothing, transportation, or shelter. Some pupils drop out of school before they receive their diplomas because they find they are 'included out' of extracurricular activities, such as athletics, the glee club, a dramatic group or some similar activity. A third body of pupils do not finish high school because they find the school program inadequate to their needs. For some pupils high school is the end of their formal education; they cannot or do not want to attend college. If their high school concentrates on college preparatory programs rather than a general education program, they either quit and look for work or seek some other institution where they can obtain the kind of curriculum they desire. Another factor which determines how much time a young person spends in high school stems entirely from the home. Some parents desire for their children a better education than they themselves had. In other homes, young people must start contributing their share to the financial upkeep of the home as soon as they are able to get work." Dr. Hand emphasized that a good definition of a good school is one "that serves all the children of all the people. A good school centers its program in major part around the problems of real life and keeps abreast of new developments."—*The Public and Education*.

DETROIT STUDIES ITS DROP-OUTS.—The Department of Guidance and Placement of the Detroit Public Schools has made a study of 2,987 students who voluntarily dropped out of high school in 1950-51. The results of this study is to be used in a continuing study of measures needed to help potential drop-outs more effectively and reduce school leaving. The findings substantiate those of other studies as to the family background and general characteristics of students who voluntarily leave school, the age and grade at which they leave (the Detroit figures are 77% at age 16 or 17; 50% from 9th or 10th grade; and 36% from 11th grade), and the reasons why they leave.

There was no evidence of any marked relationship between serious family problems and dropping out of school—the Detroit drop-outs did *not* come from "broken" homes, or "foreign language" homes, or economically insecure homes in 80 to 90% of the cases. They *did* come from homes in which high-school graduation was not the typical educational pattern among the older members of the family—in about 80% of the families, the parents had not been graduated from high school and in 52% of the families no older brothers or sisters of the drop-out had been graduated from high school. More than a third of the drop-outs (36%) had been in six or more schools instead of the two or three which is normal for students in Detroit. Only 12 to 17% participated in community youth activities and high-school activities, though 71% were rated average or better in their school citizenship. Standard tests showed that 76% of the drop-outs were average or above average in native learning ability as compared with 80% for the total student population and, therefore, had the capacity to complete high-school work. Yet 76% had experienced one or more grade failures in elementary school and 93%, one or more subject failures in high school.

Reasons for leaving were obtained in interviews, not only with the students but with the students and with their parents and teachers as well, in more than 2,600 of the 2,987 drop-out cases. "Prefer to work," "dislike of school," and "loss of interest" were the three leading reasons given by students. Parents were in agreement on the first two as leading reasons but put "financial need at home" in third place, whereas students put it in fourth place. However, if to "loss of interest," which parents listed fifth, are added such other reasons as "refuses to attend" or "refuses to study," which parents listed fourth and sixth, the total of these three reasons is twice as large as "financial need."

Among teachers, "loss of interest" was the leading reason with "financial need" second, "emotional disturbances at home" third, and "prefer to work" fourth. Parents and teachers both gave more reasons for school leaving than the students did; but, when their reasons were correlated with student reasons, it was found that in 81% of the cases there was substantial agreement between at least two of the three groups and in 44% among all three.

From the reasons given most frequently by students, parents, and teachers, the "preponderance of evidence," the report says, "suggests that, while emotional and financial problems are factors which must be reckoned with and which require attention and further study, the typical drop-out has lost interest in high school to the extent that he dislikes it and wants to go to work.... Each of our high schools," the report states, "will examine its own findings from this study and attempt specific remedial measures as indicated. All will be encouraged to keep a friendly interest in their drop-outs and their failing and uninterested students who are potential drop-outs, in the spirit in

which this study was made. The mere fact that the study was carried on has already had a salutary effect in that it has awakened interest in many homes and schools in one of the problems of the day in the field of secondary education. This interest must be utilized in a united effort to solve the problem."  
—*The American Child*. February, 1952.

**FOLLOW-UP PROGRAM IN MINNEAPOLIS.**—A program of following up students over sixteen who fail to return to school in September, carried on in the Minneapolis public schools since 1943, is proving very effective in reducing the number of drop-outs. The Department of Counseling in the Division of Secondary Education of the public schools has enlisted the help of the PTA in this follow-up program in order that personal contacts may be made early in the school year with students who were in school in June but who have not returned in September. Speed is important in this follow-up work for, unless drop-outs are identified and contacted in the first few weeks of school, they will miss too much work to make it possible for them to return. Students under sixteen are not included in this project as they are followed up by the visiting teachers in the schools as soon as the schools open.

The report of the results of the 1951 follow-up program, prepared by Miss Margaret E. Andrews of the Department of Counseling, emphasizes that gains have been made through use of improved techniques since the project was started in 1943. Experience has demonstrated that preliminary work by the counselors to eliminate "valid" drop-outs (e.g. students who have transferred to another school or moved away from the city) and to compile more information from school records on "questionable" drop-outs greatly facilitates the follow-up work when it starts in September.

Most of the drop-outs, who were interviewed in 1951 by the representatives of the PTA and the counselors, were working. A few were looking for work and some were staying at home. Out of a total of 213 drop-outs who could be located, 104 were urged to return on the basis of all the facts that could be assembled—school records, attitudes, and family conditions. Fifty-five, or about 50%, of the 104 actually did return to school or made plans to return later.—*The American Child*. February, 1952.

**WESTFIELD HIGH SCHOOL'S ANALYSIS OF DROP-OUTS, 1950-51.**—Many public statements are made about the large percentages (50 per cent is the most usual figure) of our young people who do not graduate from high school. This constant reiteration makes many people believe that half our young people do actually drop out of high school. The evidence on which the statements are based is twenty years old and is country-wide. In the north central and northeast states, it has not been true even that recently. In an attempt to get the real facts as to amount of school leaving, reasons, types of pupil, etc., Westfield has made a careful study of all cases for a year. The period from the closing of schools in June 1950 to the closing in June 1951 was taken. Pupils who transferred to another school were not included; only the real drop-outs: those who left school. Of the 27 drop-outs, seventeen were of normal age in their grade, ten were over-age—seven by one year, three by two years or more. Of these ten, one was in grade eleven, three in ten, six in nine.

Since the average graduating class of 1951-1952 will be 175, the 27 drop-outs represent 15½ per cent of the graduating group or 13¼ per cent of the entering group. In other words, about ⅘ of those entering high school are

graduated. Thus the facts are markedly different from the supposition mentioned at the beginning. This fact should not be interpreted to mean that  $\frac{1}{4}$  of the youth in the community are graduated from high school. A few of the most over-age drop out before grade 9, but the number is small. Between 20 and 25 per cent of the youth attend two other secondary schools in the community. The drop-out percentage in one is probably a little greater than Westfield's; that in the other about the same. Hence it seems reasonable to estimate that 95 per cent of the youth of the community enter high school and 80 per cent are graduated. Of the 27 drop-outs, the reasons for leaving were given as follows: economic pressure, 6; marriage, probably involuntary, 3; marriage, probably voluntary, 3; unwilling to attend school, 12; probably pregnancy, no marriage, 1; enlistment, 1; and mental case, 1.—Ralph W. Hasking, Principal of the Westfield, Massachusetts, High School.

DOLLARS FOR SCHOLARS.—A cool \$4,000,000 worth of scholarship aid went unclaimed in 1951, the U. S. Office of Education estimates. Scholarships totaling \$31,000,000 were available last year. Almost one dollar in eight went begging—mainly because students didn't know about the scholarships or weren't interested. Although dates for filing scholarship applications vary from early in the calendar year to late summer, most colleges set a March 15th deadline for admission and scholarship applications. Not all scholarships are earmarked for the class leaders. Other reasons for the awards are place of birth, residence, or financial need; some students get scholarship aid because no one else bothers to apply.—*Guidance Newsletter*.

TEACHING IS EXCITING.—This is the title of Bulletin No. 88 published by the Association for Childhood Education International. It is the work of Dr. Margaret Wasson, Director of Instruction in the Highland Park Public Schools, Dallas, Texas. Miss Wasson was the recipient of the 1950-51 Annie Webb Blanton Scholarship. It is an addition to the literature on teacher recruitment and is the outcome of Miss Wasson's graduate study made possible through her scholarship. The pamphlet is addressed primarily to young people who are considering teaching as a way of life, but it is unique in that it gives at the beginning six sample days describing as many teachers' lives in different situations in schoolrooms. It is primarily an invitation to teaching and should be used as a supplement to other sources of material which give specific factual information.—*News of the Delta Kappa Gamma Society*, 1309 Brazos Street, Austin, Texas.

CURRICULUM BULLETIN.—*The Curriculum Bulletin* is a publication of the University of Oregon School of Education, Eugene, Oregon. It is a series of pamphlets for teachers, supervisors, administrators, and all others interested in curriculum development. Included in the series are resource units, curriculum program, enrichment materials, pupil evaluation materials, bibliographies of instructional materials, and other professional materials for curriculum workers. The annual subscription price is \$5, about 25 per cent less than the list price of the individual bulletins. About twenty bulletins are issued each year.

INTELLIGENCE TEST.—The Educational Test Bureau, 3433 Walnut Street, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania; 720 Washington Avenue, S.E., Minneapolis, Minnesota; and 2106 Pierce Avenue, Nashville, Tennessee, presents a new Intel-



ligence Test by Kuhlmann-Finch. The tests are prepared not only for grades one to six but also for the junior and senior high school. During six years of preliminary work, Dr. Finch developed and tried out more than a thousand original items, of many types, and established their validity in successive age groups. Items selected from this reservoir make up the new tests. The tests have been standardized on representative groups in many sections of the United States. There is a separate booklet for each age level with no duplication of content. The tests sell for \$1.95 per 25 tests with an *Instruction Manual* for 75 cents. A specimen set can be obtained for \$1.50.

**NATIONAL BUSINESS ENTRANCE TESTS.**—A new revised series of the National Business Entrance Tests is available for use by approved testing centers giving the *Official Test Center Long-Form Test Series*. Schools and other approved testing centers may give the new series during May or June, and under certain conditions throughout the year. The NBE Tests are sponsored jointly by the National Office Management Association and the United Business Education Association. There are three separate series of NBE Tests available, each designed for a different testing situation. These three different series of tests are:

(1) *Long Form General Testing and Screening Series*. About 2-hour duration. Used by business concerns for employment screening. Schools frequently use for training purposes or for general testing. Easy to administer. Comes complete with instructions and correction keys. Results determined promptly and easily. Tests in this series include: stenography, typewriting, machine calculation, bookkeeping, general office clerical (including filing), and business fundamentals and general information. Individual tests \$.50. Set of six tests (one of each type) \$2.00. Quantities of 25 tests (alike or assorted) \$5.00.

(2) *Short Form General Testing and Screening Series*. About 1-hour duration. For business concerns desiring a short-form screening test in stenography or typewriting. Easy to administer and score. Individual tests \$.50. Set of six tests (alike or assorted) \$2.00. Quantities of 25 tests (alike or assorted) \$5.00.

(3) *Official Test Center Testing Series*. About 2-hour duration. Latest #1420 series is available only to official testing centers on or after April 1, 1952. Older #1390 series is available for training purposes or general testing. Tests in this series include: stenography, typewriting, machine calculation, bookkeeping, general office clerical (including filing), and business fundamentals and general information. Tests are scored by official scoring centers by specially trained examiners. Successful examinees are presented with National Business Entrance Test Proficiency Certificates. Tests in this series are \$1.00 each irrespective of the quantity ordered. Any school or test-sponsoring organization may get approval and become an official test center with a minimum of five examinees. For additional information write for the booklet entitled, "Information about National Business Entrance Tests." All inquiries should be addressed to: Joint Committee on Tests, National Office Management Association, 132 West Chelton Avenue, Philadelphia 44, Pennsylvania.

**BOY SCOUTS LAUNCH THREE YEAR PROGRAM.**—The Boy Scouts of America, with its membership of 2,900,000, is now launching a "Three Year Program" to help make and keep America physically strong, mentally awake, and

morally straight. The slogan of the campaign is "Forward on Liberty's Team" and the symbol is the Liberty Bell. During these three years (1952-1954) the Boy Scouts will do all in their power to strengthen the boys of America, the Boy Scout movement, and the nation to meet more adequately the stern realities of present-day conditions. During 1951 two nation-wide Good Turns will be carried out—a "Get out the Vote" campaign to get citizens to register and vote as part of their citizen responsibility and a "Blood Donor" campaign in local neighborhoods in co-operation with the American Red Cross. The Boy Scout interest in these and other projects will be the training values to the boy as well as the returns on the project itself.

SUN GLASSES LESSEN NIGHT DRIVING HAZARDS.—Dr. Robert H. Peckham, Temple University Medical School professor, has revealed that the use of sun glasses to protect the eyes from the glare of sunlight, serves as a help in night-time auto driving. In a series of rigid tests among twenty-four drivers near Phoenix, Arizona, where sunlight is particularly strong, Dr. Peckham discovered that drivers exposed to sunlight during the day and who fail to protect their eyes against sun glare may require nearly twice as much light in night driving as usual to see normally with their headlights. On the other hand, drivers who filtered the strong sunlight through sun glasses had much better vision during night driving. The tests showed that a driver who protected his eyes against sun glare during the daytime could see an obstacle and stop in time at a speed of sixty miles an hour, while a driver exposed to sunlight during the daytime could not make a safe stop at more than forty miles an hour.

SURVEYING NEEDS FOR POST-HIGH-SCHOOL EDUCATION.—Hofstra College, Hempstead, New York, made a study of the 7,213 high-school graduates in 1950 of Nassau and Suffolk Counties in New York state in an effort to ascertain the need for education and training beyond high school. The survey revealed that sixty-five per cent were enrolled in some post-high-school education program, ten per cent had seriously considered enrolling, and twenty-five per cent had not considered enrolling. Financial limitations and selective service were the principal reasons given for not enrolling. It was also revealed that approximately fifteen per cent of the graduates not continuing their education beyond high school would have done so if a low-cost college, junior college, and technical institute had been available. The study revealed that, for this group, two-year institutions, such as technical institutes and junior colleges, were most in demand. The study was jointly sponsored by a community council of twenty-nine persons broadly representative of the area studied.

THE PROBLEM OF ADDITIONAL TIME.—Asking teachers to service these additional programs over and above a normal teaching day poses a problem for many systems which hold to a single salary schedule based on the experience and training of teachers. To set up a series of supplements determined by the additional time and services of teachers given extra assignments would seem a simple solution to the problem; however, this is not true. Many systems have tried such a solution in regards to athletics and bands, much to their concern, because the money premium placed upon extra service created a system commonly known as "the tail wagging the dog" in school administrative circles.

Other systems have used an adjustment of assignment in an attempt to meet the problem. Under this plan, a teacher who is assigned the direction of

the student council, for instance, is given a lighter teaching assignment. However, if such a method is used too extensively, and, if extra personnel is needed to handle the classes not assigned to the "additional work" teachers, the cost to the system will be about the same as a plan of salary supplements. Also, the disadvantage will exist that most of the best teachers might be actually teaching fewer pupils.

The school people of Florida in co-operation with the State Department of Education and a Citizens' Committee on Education in 1947 attempted to meet the problem of additional work by establishing administrative and special instructional service teacher units in addition to the normal teacher unit based on every twenty-seven pupils in average daily attendance. These units are allotted a school on the basis of one for each eight regular academic teachers who have an average daily attendance of at least twenty-seven pupils.

These persons may be used by the local school system for ten months (the length of the regular contractual period for teachers in Florida) or for a twelve-months' period. The monetary value of these administrative and special service units, from the state funds, is increased by twenty per cent when the services they provide are used on a twelve-months' basis. Service must be rendered by the person employed on each such unit for a twelve-months' period.

Under the Florida system, the annual income of persons rendering additional services is materially greater than that of regular academic teachers. It offers a broader range of opportunities for more teachers to increase their incomes than did the old supplementary system; it encourages provision for a better variety of essential services; and it induces teachers to prepare themselves for a wider scope of school and community activities. For the short time it has been in operation, this system seems to be working very satisfactorily for all concerned—pupils, parents, teachers, and administrators.—*The BULLETIN of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, Volume 34, Dec. 1950, Number 174.

**NEW FILM ON WILLIAMSBURG.**—"Williamsburg Restored," a new documentary film in color, has just been released by Colonial Williamsburg depicting the history and restoration of this significant colonial capital city. Designed for use by adult groups, organizations, and schools, the new motion picture made for Colonial Williamsburg by the Julien Bryan International Film Foundation is the first of a projected series of films on this old city and the eighteenth century life here which developed many of our earliest leaders. It will be made available through the new Film Distribution Section of Colonial Williamsburg. The 44-minute, 16 mm. documentary film shows historic actions of the eighteenth century in Williamsburg, the start of the restoration work a quarter-century ago detailing the actual techniques employed, and ends with scenes of typical visitors seeing the old city today. Included are scenes of the 1920's showing the early cars and high fashions of the period—the age of flivvers and flappers—when the historic city was in danger of losing the last vestiges of its colonial appearance. It was directed by Francis Thompson with narration by actor Walter Abel. It liamsburg, Virginia. Other film and color slide sets already available through the new audio-visual department of Colonial Williamsburg include the 44-minute sound color film, "Eighteenth Century Life in Williamsburg, Virginia," and sets of color slides with narrative texts on the history and restoration of

the city, on authentic 18th century flower arrangements and on the restored gardens of Williamsburg.

**"OIL-STAKE IN THE COLD WAR" FILMSTRIP.**—Oil is essential for modern war and modern living. Without it the life of the nation would halt. The struggle for control of the oil-rich Near East is a major factor in the Cold War. This is the theme of the new filmstrip "Oil-Stake in the Cold War" which shows the main uses of oil in the U. S., then sketches its production and distribution. It shows how Near East oil is of great importance to Western Europe and South Asia and how Russia is taking steps to disrupt the economies of these areas by depriving them of Near East oil. A Teachers' Discussion Manual, containing amplifying material on most frames, accompanies the filmstrip, which consists of fifty-three black and white frames, for 35 mm. projectors. "Report on the News" filmstrips are issued by the Office of Educational Activities, The New York Times, Times Square, New York 18, New York. Price for series of eight monthly filmstrips is \$12. Individual strips are \$2 each.

**NEW HISTORICAL RECORDINGS.**—A new series of recordings, based on the popular *Landmark Books*, which are published by Random House, is being prepared at present. These records will be issued by Enrichment Materials, Inc., a new organization formed to produce recordings of great events from our nation's past. The first titles are based on *The Voyages of Christopher Columbus* by Armatrong Sperry, *The Pony Express* by Samuel Hopkins Adams, *The California Gold Rush* by May McNeer, and *The Landing of the Pilgrims* by James Daugherty. Additional recordings are planned for release at regular intervals thereafter. Each record contains as background for the straight dramatic presentation, authentic music of the period. A guide, of value to teachers and librarians who may wish to make professional use of the records, is being prepared. All titles will be issued in both standard and long playing speed on non-breakable records. Playing time for each title is 15 minutes. For further information, write to Enrichment Materials, Inc., 246 Fifth Avenue, New York 1, New York.

**THE DOCTOR'S PRESCRIPTION.**—E. R. Squibb & Sons have recently released a new 16 mm., sound, black and white 20-minute film entitled "Rx—The Story Behind Your Doctor's Prescription." "Rx" is not distributed from the Squibb office but rather through the various public libraries. This film is a survey of how the resources of chemical and biological sciences contribute to medical service throughout the world by modern manufacturing methods. Importance of "control" to retain standards is emphasized. Products included are ether, preventive vaccines, insulin and antibiotics. The value of a brand name is pointed out, as assuring quality. Its use is to portray the role of science in the pharmaceutical industry; to stimulate interest in the field; to point out importance of reputation of manufacturer. The film can be used for students in the junior and senior high school.

**VISUAL AIDS HELP HIGH FACULTY TO UNDERSTAND PROBLEMS OF DROP-OUT.**—Motion pictures which told the story of the *Drop-Out* and the *Stay-In* were the main features of a recent faculty meeting at Scott Senior High School, Coatesville, Pennsylvania. The first picture vividly portrayed

the reasons why boys and girls drop out of school. The second film showed a school where teachers were using the latest and best teaching devices; there was a great deal of pupil participation in all classes. Subsequent faculty meetings will afford opportunity for discussion of the implications of these two films. There will be time for curriculum revision in terms of a greater amount of life adjustment.

The drop-out is a matter of serious concern to all high-school teachers and administrators, since all educators accept the philosophy that the high school of today should meet the educational needs of all youth of secondary-school age. The drop-out rate among high-school students throughout the country is frequently referred to as being approximately 50 per cent. This means that about one-half of all the boys and girls who start high school in the ninth grade are not graduated. In Coatesville the record is considerably better. According to the records compiled by a faculty committee last year, the class of 1950 had a drop-out rate of 35 per cent, while the 1949 group had a rate of 30 per cent.—William Muthard, Principal of Scott Senior High School, Coatesville, Pennsylvania.

**CENSUS OF FOREIGN STUDENTS IN THE UNITED STATES.**—In our colleges and universities, today, there are just twice as many students from abroad as there were in 1946. The presence of 30,462 foreign students on U. S. campuses—some 600 more than last year—is heartening to all those interested in the promotion of world co-operation and understanding through the international exchange of people. It shows that despite monetary exchange barriers and the continuation of a critical international situation, the flow of students from abroad to the United States is holding its own. In administering various scholarship programs, the Institute of International Education helped bring approximately 3,000 of these students—almost one-tenth of our total foreign student population—to the United States this year.

Briefly scanning the statistical findings in IIE's census, it is noted that of the 30,462 students reported, 23,293 are men and 7,169 are women. Although the majority are between 18 and 27 years, the full age is from 13 to 66 years. One hundred thirty countries of the world are represented; with Canada, China, Germany, Mexico, and India atop the list. These students are enrolled in over 1,400 educational institutions throughout the forty-eight states, Alaska, the Canal Zone, Hawaii, and Puerto Rico, and they have chosen a wide range of study subjects. The leading fields of study for foreign students have remained fairly constant over the past few years: engineering, first; followed by the social sciences; liberal arts and medical sciences; then the physical sciences; business studies; religion; education; agriculture; and fine arts. It is particularly significant that the social sciences are attracting increasing numbers of students. They have moved from third to second place this year; in 1949, they ranked fourth. Whereas traditionally students have come to this country chiefly for engineering and the sciences, the United States continues to gain stature as a center for study in all fields.

**A LIST OF 16 MM. FILMS.**—More than a thousand new motion picture titles appear in the latest revision of the *Blue Book of 16 mm. Films*, by the publisher, *The Educational Screen*, official journal of the National Education Association's Department of Audio-Visual Instruction. More than 7,000 films are

described—with full data given as to whether they are sound or silent, color or black-and-white, length, TV rights, original source and chief national distributors. Nearly four hundred national sources are given, with the films each distributes clearly indicated. In addition there is an extensive geographical directory to aid in locating nearby sources of films and equipment. The titles are arranged under 182 separate subject headings ranging from Air Travel to Zoos. An alphabetical index affords easy and quick location of films by titles. It is sold through audio-visual, school-supply, photographic, book and other dealers, and by the publisher, The Educational Screen, at 64 E. Lake St., Chicago 1, Illinois. A single copy costs \$1.50.

**2,400 FREE-LOAN FILMS AVAILABLE.**—Almost 2,400 films (16 mm.) are available on a free-loan basis to groups wishing to use them, it was revealed recently. The films cover virtually every conceivable topic from "ABC's of Beef Cookery" to "Zonolite, the Wonder Mineral." The publication, *The Handbook of Free Films*, describes each film and tells where and how it may be borrowed. It was prepared for use by churches, educators, clubs, industrial plants, civic and fraternal organizations, veterans groups, professional societies, institutions, public libraries, and all other users of 16 mm. films. The films, which are available from more than 750 different business concerns, organizations, and governmental agencies throughout the country, deal with such varied topics as the training of workers for a job, travel, sports, economics, health, and safety. Various individual films are intended for entertainment, training and public information. Special Interest-Indexes in the *Handbook of Free Films* list hundreds of sports and travel films, special films for women's groups, films produced especially for rural audiences, and several hundred technical and training films, as well as many hundreds of films of general interest to all groups. Of the 2,395 films described in the book, more than half are in color. Edited by Nanette Nortarius and Allan S. Larson, the handbook contains 237 pages and is cloth bound for durability. It is available direct from the publishers, Allanan Associates, 509 Fifth Avenue, New York 17, New York, for \$10.00 per copy.

**NEW PUBLIC RELATIONS AIDS.**—Two 15-minute radio transcriptions head the list of the latest public relations aids now available through the NEA Division of Press and Radio Relations. Other new aids include a public relations handbook and a leaflet on citizenship. The two transcriptions, the second in a series of dramatizations designed to interpret the role of education to the public, are entitled, *Tomorrow Won't Wait* and *The Goal Beyond*. In platter form (33 $\frac{1}{2}$  RPM) each transcription is a complete radio program. *Tomorrow Won't Wait* is a story of a community in need of a new school building. Two "old-timers" fight against a school bond issue, until two high school students and the school janitor give them enough "facts" about the cost of education to change their minds. The "old-timers" learn that the children of today cannot wait until tomorrow to get an education. *The Goal Beyond* portrays what every good teacher strives for according to a retired teacher who speaks in defense of the schools at a PTA meeting. The retired teacher reviews a few of her many experiences to show that schools are teaching honesty, unselfishness, and a respect for religion. Other transcriptions in the series include the *Threshold* and *The Kindled Spark*. The transcriptions sell for \$10 a platter, (2 radio programs).



*The 1952 PR Guide*, a 32-page bibliography, lists more than 150 books, pamphlets, leaflets, motion pictures, filmstrips, radio transcriptions, radio scripts, and national organizations which may be helpful in planning a school public relations program. The handbooks cost 15 cents a copy.

*The Captain Had It Easy*, a 6-page illustrated leaflet, includes facts on the teaching of U. S. history, the Constitution, and citizenship, and enumerates many examples of how schools are doing an effective job of developing citizens during a critical time in the nation's history. The leaflet is sold at the rate of 20 copies for 50 cents with a discount on quantity orders.

All public relations aids may be obtained from the Division of Press and Radio Relations, National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington 6, D. C.

**THE BABE RUTH SPORTSMANSHIP PROGRAM.**—The Babe Ruth Sportsman-ship Program is a program that fosters the best spirit of sportsmanship among the secondary school youth of our nation. Realizing that anything that can be done to cultivate the idea of good sportsmanship among youth is a worthy goal, the sponsoring agencies of this program hope to develop in youth a desire for good sportsmanship. Now, in its third year, the Babe Ruth Sportsmanship Program has over 3,000 schools in forty-two states and Hawaii participating. It is a program sponsored by the American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation; the National Association of Secondary-School Principals; and the Babe Ruth Foundation. The purpose of the project is to disseminate information on and arouse enthusiasm for good sportsmanship and fair play in the schools and among the general public. Each participating school receives an attractive plaque for permanent display, along with two medallions to be awarded to the senior boy and girl who in the opinion of their fellow students have made the greatest contribution to the spirit of sportsmanship and fair play in their school. The medallions and the plaques have been made available through a grant from the Babe Ruth Foundation. The program is under the direction of Carl A. Troester, Jr., executive secretary of the AAHPER, 1201 Sixteenth St., N.W., Washington 6, D. C. Information and a kit of material may be secured by writing to the director. Undoubtedly, there will be many additional schools that will be interested in the project and that will wish to participate during the coming school year 1952-53.

**SUMMER WORKSHOP ON THE CURRICULUM.**—The 6th annual workshop on Catholic secondary education will be held at Catholic University of America, Washington, D. C., June 13-24, 1952. The workshop is under the direction of Dr. Roy J. Defermari and Sister Mary Janet, S.C. The workshop will concentrate on a study of social living. Five seminars will be devoted to an intensive study of the place of important subject fields in the integrated curriculum. This sixth seminar will consider aspects of integration.

**WORKSHOP ON INTERGROUP EDUCATION.**—The University of Miami, Coral Gables, Florida, will again hold a six-weeks workshop in intergroup education from June 18 to July 30, 1952. A special feature of the workshop will be an elective two-weeks field project in Cuba. Students in the workshop may earn six graduate or undergraduate credits in education or human relations. Complete information may be secured by writing to M. A. F. Ritchie, Chairman, Department of Human Relations, at the University.



**TODAY'S SECRETARY.**—Those interested in secretarial work and especially students who are enrolled in commercial education courses in the high schools will find the magazine entitled *Today's Secretary* most helpful. This magazine was formerly entitled *The Gregg Writer*. This magazine can be secured at the following address: *Today's Secretary*, 330 W. 42nd Street, New York 32, New York. Subscription rates are: 25 cents per copy; but a school rate of \$1.50 for the entire school year is available. The magazine is published monthly, ten times, during the school year—September to June. This magazine is replete with many interesting aids and helps for the aspiring and the on-the-job secretary. Stories in shorthand, artistic typing, inspiring career accounts, how to dress, what to say—these are just a few of the many features that are contained in this magazine.

**THE NEW YORK TIMES FILMSTRIP.**—Some twenty-four million people inhabit North Africa today in the area between the Atlantic and Egypt. The New York Times filmstrip *North Africa in Ferment* for May outlines how they live and the agriculture and economic activity of the area. Against this background are considered the recent moves for greater independence for Tunisia and French Morocco, and also the interest of the some two million European inhabitants of an area which is predominantly Moslem. In addition, the economic advances in French North Africa under French control are sketched. The strategic importance of North Africa to the West is pointed out. Finally, the questions are raised: "Can the aspirations of North Africans toward independence be met?" "What does the West need to safeguard its defenses?" A *Teachers' Discussion Manual*, containing amplifying material on most frames accompanies the filmstrip, which has 58 black-and-white frames, for 35 mm. projectors. This is the final strip of the 1951-1952 series. The New York Times filmstrips are issued by the Office of Educational Activities, The New York Times, Times Square, New York 36, New York. Price for series of eight monthly filmstrips is \$12. Individual strips are priced at \$2 each.

**INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION FILMSTRIPS.**—A new series of industrial education full-color filmstrips, *The Use of Machines in Our Industrial Life*, has been released by the Audio-Visual Division of Popular Science Publishing Company, 353 Fourth Avenue, New York. These filmstrips are designed for junior and senior high-school industrial arts programs, vocational-industrial schools, and apprentice training programs. Made up of six full-length, 50-frame filmstrips in natural color, the series covers "Circular Saw," "Jig Saw," "Band Saw," "Drill Press," and "Shaper." All frames were specially staged and filmed at the Walker-Turner plant. This complete series of six filmstrips, totalling 300 full-color frames, is accompanied by a fully illustrated *Teaching Guide*, which offers practical, helpful suggestions for getting the most out of every single frame in each filmstrip. The complete industrial filmstrip package of six strips and *Teaching Guide* is housed in a rugged, hard-cover file container which will withstand years of constant classroom use. Price of the entire unit is \$31.50. For further information on *The Use of Machines in Our Industrial Life* contact your local audio-visual dealer or the Audio-Visual Division of Popular Science directly.

**NEW HFC FILMSTRIP SHOWS WAYS TO GET MORE FOR YOUR MONEY.**—Do you really save money if you buy a hat marked down to half price? Or canned goods by the case? What does "gauge" or "denier" of stockings

mean? Such questions of what to buy and how to buy are answered in a new filmstrip lecture, *What Is Your Shopping Score?*, produced by the Consumer Education Department of Household Finance Corporation. It is a ten-minute narration of 64 frames and is designed for use with a 35-mm. filmstrip projector. The filmstrip shows that what is economical for one family may be extravagant for another. Problems in shopping for five types of households are dramatized by a career girl, a bride, a young mother, a mother of teenage daughters, and an older homemaker. The old adage about pennies growing into dollars has modern importance for all kinds of buyers, the HFC filmstrip points out. A saving of only a few cents apiece on weekly grocery items can multiply into fifty dollars or more by the end of the year. Clubs, schools, adult education groups and business training classes may obtain the filmstrip lecture on free loan. Requests should be made to the headquarters of Household Finance Corporation, 919 North Michigan Avenue, Chicago 11, Illinois.

**OUTDOOR LIFE.**—Thrilling motion pictures of outdoor adventure, in both color and sound, are now available for free showings from Evinrude Motors, 4143 North 27th Street, Milwaukee, Wisconsin. The films, all 16-mm., are non-commercial, making only slight reference to the Evinrude outboard motors involved. Among the 13 sound and color films now ready for showing are such pictures as *To the Mountains of the Moon* (20 min.), *Fish Story* (30 min.), *California Trout* (13 min.), *Magnificent Wisconsin* (45 min.), *Babama Tuna, Adventures of that Little Man of Mine* (45 min.), *That Boy of Mine* (45 min.), *Evinruding for Colorado River Bass* (13 min.), *The Saga of the Poly-Wog* (20 min.), *Albany to New York Outboard Marathon* (13 min.), *Driftwood Derby* (15 min.), *In the Valley of the Wolf* (13 min.), and *Lake Superior Adventure* (20 min.). Bookings for the films should be made as far in advance as possible, since the pictures are in great demand by many organizations. Those wanting to use any one or several of the picture series are also asked to give an approximate number of people viewing the film and the type of audience to which it will be shown.

**UN FILMSTRIPS.**—Announcing its first release in the filmstrip field under the title: *The Growing World Community*, the U. N. Gram Publishing Company, Inc., 220 East 46th Street, New York, has added a monthly full-color filmstrip service to its weekly three-section publication, at a special price to all subscribers of record who choose to take advantage of the offer. The subscription price for the weekly, which is bought by schools, libraries, and organizations for formal or adult education on the United Nations and world affairs, is \$18. The new price to subscribers who also get eight monthly full-color filmstrips is \$28.80. Wallace Thorsen, publisher and editor of the weekly, is also producer of the filmstrips, which are 35-mm., 25 frames each. Extensive annotations and speech notes are furnished with each release. Art is by Roman Schmitt. U. N. Gram filmstrips, bought separately, are \$3.95 each.

**FILMSTRIPS FOR AGRICULTURAL STUDENTS.**—Six new full-color, full-length filmstrips of importance to agricultural students, farm groups, and future farmer organizations have just been released in a group of three series entitled *Selection of Breeding Stock* by the Audio Visual Division of Popular Science Publishing Company, 353 Fourth Avenue, New York 10, New York. Covering beef, sheep, and swine, each of the three series consists of two natural-color filmstrips—one devoted to the male and the other to the female

—that enables teachers and discussion leaders to bring into their classrooms hundreds of selected examples of animals that illustrate vital points of stock selection. With vast herds of scientifically bred animals at their disposal, the editors and photographers of these filmstrips were able to emphasize significant points of difference between good and poor stock and to hammer home the specific distinguishing characteristics that indicate real quality. The three series, *Selection of Breeding Stock—Beef*, *Selection of Breeding Stock—Sheep*, and *Selection of Breeding Stock—Swine*, are each priced at \$12, complete with two strips and a fully illustrated *Teaching Guide*. Orders may be placed or information obtained at your local Audio-Visual Division or at Popular Science.

**WANTED: 2,500 QUALIFIED MEN AND WOMEN IN AUDIO-VISUAL EDUCATION.**—With only a scant 2,500 full-time education workers now employed in various phases of the audio-visual field, members of the Department of Audio-Visual Instruction (DAVI) of the National Education Association, Washington 6, D. C., are ready to embark on a full-scale recruiting program to double their number in the next five years. This action and ways of removing obstacles which prevent the effective use of audio-visual instructional materials were discussed at the Department's recent annual meeting. J. J. McPherson, executive secretary, has announced that three publications to be issued within the next year will emphasize ways in which good audio-visual programs can be developed. They will: (1) spell out for school superintendents and principals the ABCs of setting up an audio-visual program; (2) outline the qualifications and preparation of audio-visual personnel; and (3) recommend types of building facilities and equipment necessary for effective audio-visual programs.

**A CENTRAL TREASURY FOR SCHOOL ACTIVITIES.**—Good high-school administration makes provision for a centralized plan of controlling all pupil activity finances in a general account showing the itemized day-by-day receipts and expenditures and the monthly bank balance. In Scott High School, Coatesville, Pa., all monies belonging to the activities are kept and supervised through a master set of books; this work is performed by Mrs. Frances D. Blessing, activities treasurer. Deposits and withdrawals are made by the treasurers of the various student activities, and the sponsors supervise their work. The money is kept on deposit in a local bank.

Duplicate deposit slips accompany any money which is deposited with the activities treasurer. These deposits are checked in the presence of the person making the deposit. The duplicate slip is signed by the activities treasurer, and this serves as a receipt. In making a withdrawal, duplicate withdrawal slips are presented to the activities treasurer, signed by the individual activity, and counter-signed by the sponsor-teacher. Checks are issued by the activities treasurer in payment of these requisitions, and are signed by the principal of the high school and the activities treasurer. The activity fund is audited once a year by the school accountant, who has been approved by the school board. The activities treasurer is bonded.

In the school year 1950-51, there were 620 deposits made and 1,012 checks written. A total of \$66,607.95 in deposits was received and \$69,914.20 was paid out. The athletic department, the cafeteria fund, and the football coaches clinic showed the greatest amount of activity.—William Muthard, Principal of Scott Senior High School, Coatesville, Pennsylvania.

**SUMMER SESSION.**—The March 5, 1952, issue of *Scholastic Teacher*, pages 8T ff., contains an excellent comprehensive list of colleges and universities having summer sessions this summer. This list is organized by states, it tells the length of session; the beginning date; whether workshop or other; whether for men, women, or coeducational; whether off-campus study or not; whether in or outside United States; whether graduate or undergraduate; dormitory facilities; etc.

**A MINERAL ENGINEERING SCHOLARSHIP FOR EACH STATE.**—The Colorado School of Mines is continuing for the academic year 1952-53 the annual offering of one scholarship to a male student from each state upon the recommendation of the state. The scholarship exempts the holder from the payment of tuition in the regular school year and in the required summer field courses but not from deposits or student fees. The scholarship does not apply to the nine-week summer session, and it makes no provision for living or other personal expenses. Board and room and incidental expenses will not be less than \$75 and should not be more than \$100 a month. The scholarship must be used at the beginning of the fall semester immediately after its issuance except with special permission. The value of the exemption from tuition is \$425 to \$475 a year. It may remain effective for a maximum period of four years, provided the student maintains a satisfactory scholastic standing and complies with the rules and regulations of the school, and, therefore, has a total value of approximately \$1,800.

An applicant for a scholarship should possess those qualities essential to the making of a successful engineer. He must satisfy the entrance requirements as specified in the informational bulletin of the school and scholastically must be in the upper tenth of his high-school graduating class. If he has attended a college or university, his scholastic work must be satisfactory. A student now in attendance at the Colorado School of Mines, or one who formerly attended, is not eligible for one of these scholarships. Application for the scholarship should be made to the office of the Superintendent of Public Instruction of the state in which the applicant lives on or before July 1, 1952.

**OUR MASS COMMUNICATION MEDIA.**—According to Robert Altshuler of the Central Feature News, Times Tower, Times Square, New York, there are 107 television stations, 2,295 radio stations, 1,780 daily newspapers, and 12,000 monthly magazines in the United States. The daily newspaper circulation is 52 million; magazine circulation exceeds 400 million. Radio and TV reach the entire population.

**ECONOMIC EDUCATION OF TEACHERS AND ADMINISTRATORS.**—Increased support of a national movement to improve and expand economic education of teachers and school administrators in the public schools was announced by Marion B. Folsom, Chairman of the Committee for Economic Development. He announced receipt of a grant of \$123,750 from the Fund for Adult Education. CED will use the grant to help support the national service activities of the Joint Council on Economic Education, a non-profit organization of leaders in education, business, and labor. The Joint Council works with colleges, school systems, and community groups to help teachers and administrators develop programs to improve the quality of economic education in secondary schools.

Since its founding in 1949, the Joint Council's principal activity has been assistance in the organization of workshops under college or university sponsorship at which high-school teachers and administrators join with leaders in education, business, labor, and government to study the economic system and to develop methods of improving classroom instruction in economics. This is the second year the Fund for Adult Education, an independent organization established by the Ford Foundation, has made a supporting grant. It is one of the activities of the Fund for Adult Education to develop an improved public understanding about our economy.

More than 2,400 teachers from forty-four states and the Territory of Hawaii have attended workshops since the Joint Council was formed. Thousands of other teachers have been helped through continuing programs which have developed in sixteen states, usually in the form of state, regional, and local councils. Such activities, as well as the workshops, are autonomous. They are locally controlled, under the sponsorship of a college or other established educational institution and locally financed.

Approximately \$300,000 is being raised by community groups to finance their local projects for 1952, according to Professor G. Derwood Baker, of the New York University School of Education, who is Chairman of the Joint Council. Twenty-six workshops will be held on the campuses of sponsoring colleges and universities this summer in all parts of the country with fifty to seventy-five teachers attending each. Workshops usually last three weeks. The structure and operation of the American economy is analyzed and procedures for improving classroom instruction are developed. Workshop staffs include competent economists, curriculum specialists, and consultants from business, labor, research organizations, and government. Special attention is given to the economic problems of the areas in which the workshops are held. Other than encouraging and co-operating in the establishment of workshops and continuing programs, the Joint Council facilitates the exchange of materials, procedures, and techniques developed in the local activities.

THE EMPLOYMENT OUTLOOK 1952-53.—By the end of 1953, there will be 68,400,000 people at work in the United States in civilian jobs or in military service, according to estimates of manpower requirements based on current defense plans and expected production for civilian use. Nearly one fifth of the total will be on defense work either as members of the armed forces or as civilian workers. This means an increase over the number employed or in the armed forces at the end of 1951 of 3,600,000, most of whom (2,700,000) will be directly or indirectly engaged in defense production while 600,000 augment our non-defense work force and 300,000 join those in our military services. Although those unemployed at the end of 1953 are expected to be half a million less than the 1,700,000 so reported at the end of 1951, there may be distressing, temporary unemployment in particular occupations, industries, and communities as shifts from non-defense to defense work continue to be made. At the same time, other occupations, industries, and communities will be handicapped by a lack of supply of available employees. Increased use of older workers and housewives without young children will make possible the meeting of anticipated needs, according to this latest estimate of manpower needs and supply. For further information see *Projected Manpower Requirements and Supply 1952-53*. Manpower Report No. 14. January 1952. Available

from the U. S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, Washington 25, D. C.

**OUR TRAFFIC-ACCIDENT PROBLEM.**—A realistic look into the future of U. S. traffic conditions and highway casualties was given by Thomas N. Boate, accident prevention department manager of the Association of Casualty and Surety Companies, 60 John Street, New York 38, New York, who predicted that unless a public awakening to the growing menace of automobile accidents to personal safety makes it "a first-rate political issue," there will be twice as many accidents and injuries and a 50 per cent increase in traffic deaths by 1967. Projecting rates of increases since the end of World War II into the next 15 years, Mr. Boate told the 31st annual Massachusetts Safety Conference in Boston that by 1967 the nation would have 107,200,000 licensed drivers and a total of 16,700,000 automobile accidents in a one-year period. He also estimated that a total of 56,000 persons will be killed in 1965 as a result of traffic accidents, an increase of 19,000 over the 1951 figure, which already has risen 9,000 over the 1945 highway death toll, unless the "rapid deterioration of highway safety in recent years" is reversed.

"Notwithstanding all of the knowledge and all the fine techniques that have been developed," said Mr. Boate, "the traffic accident experience in this country will continue to grow in frequency and severity until much stronger leadership is applied to the safety movement than has heretofore been the case. The most important undertaking confronting those of us who devote our lives to highway safety is the achievement of a public awakening that will resolve the motor vehicle accident experience into a first-rate political issue on which candidates for public office will be compelled to commit themselves. This implies a situation in which there is constant urging on the part of recognized leaders for adoption of needed reforms in traffic safety. This is a task of no mean proportions, the accomplishment of which is long overdue."

Public apathy remains unchanged while motor vehicle accidents continue to increase in number and severity, Mr. Boate told the state-wide safety conference. Lack of understanding of the motor vehicle accident problem and its solution by responsible officials of state and municipal government "continue static," he declared, "which is merely a reflection of public indifference." Together with the rapid increase in the number and use of motor vehicles, he added, these are the fundamental reasons for the rapid deterioration of highway safety in recent years.

"Traffic accident prevention is a long-range undertaking, the essence of which is public education," said Mr. Boate. "The objective of public education and traffic safety is necessarily the production of an entirely new kind of driver. This is a big undertaking. We have barely made a start. It implies the joining of forces of all the major industries concerned with the problem, with the backing of representative groups from all agencies of our society.

"On the other hand, there is the immediate attack which involves preparation of better laws and regulations; effective enforcement through increased manpower, facilities, and training; and aggressive support of the public in favor of immediate reforms, be they legislative or administrative. There can be no question of the enormity of the job that lies ahead. It might be well, therefore, to look into the future and attempt to estimate the highway traffic situation as it may well be 15 years from now, in 1967. According to the rate



of increase in the number of registered vehicles since 1945, we may assume that the number will be almost double in the next 15 years."

A conservative estimate would place the number of registered vehicles at 78,000,000 by 1967, compared with 48,500,000 in 1950, according to Mr. Boate. He pointed out the recent prediction of E. H. Holmes, of the Bureau of Public Roads, that the number of registered vehicles will probably double in the next 18 years. At the present rate of increase in licensed drivers, from 50,500,000 in 1947 to 62,000,000 in 1950, Mr. Boate added, an estimated average increase of 3,000,000 drivers annually would bring the U. S. driving population to 107,200,000 by 1965.

"At the present rate of increase in the number of traffic accidents, what will the situation be 15 years hence?" Mr. Boate asked. "Study of the accident experience since 1945 indicates that there were 2,800,000 more traffic accidents in 1950 than in 1945. All things being equal, we may estimate there will be a total of 16,700,000 traffic accidents in 1965. There were 9,000 more persons killed in 1951 than in 1945. We may estimate that a total of 56,000 persons will be killed in 1965 as a result of traffic accidents.

"In 1965 we may have twice as many autos as we have today, almost double the present number of licensed drivers, double the number of traffic accidents and fatalities per year may increase by 50 per cent. If the past is any indication of the future, highway construction will not keep abreast of automobile production, licensed drivers, and pedestrian traffic. A situation that is already highly complex and deadly can be expected to become much more acute and many more times deadly for the child who is now six years old by the time he reaches his majority. Obviously, therefore, it is vital that the child of today be trained to live with tomorrow's highway traffic. The time to begin is the first day in the first grade of schools."

Mr. Boate outlined the following "most apparent needs" of the moment to achieve greater highway safety:

Tightening up of traffic laws where needed; enactment of reasonable but absolute top-speed limits and their strict enforcement; complete uniformity of traffic laws and regulations among states and municipalities; complete reorganization of state and municipal police departments, with procurement of adequate personnel and facilities necessary to the proper control of highway traffic; impartial enforcement of traffic laws and regulations, with "great emphasis" on suspension of driving privileges as a penalty flowing from law violations and accident involvement; suspension of driving privileges on first conviction for violation of speed laws; uncompromising accident investigation by police, with a view toward punishment of offenders; appropriate regulation of pedestrian traffic; greater use of traffic engineering in regulating movement of vehicular and pedestrian traffic; a stiff examination of persons applying for operator's license, with unconditional refusal to license the unqualified; a "clinical examination" of accident repeaters and chronic law violators with institution of corrective measures or withdrawal of operating privileges; and state-wide periodic inspection of the safety factors of all motor vehicles.

Mr. Boate described the long range needs as follows: a realistic highway improvement program; elimination of highway hazards through traffic engineering; high quality driver education courses for all students in all high schools, and adult driver education by state and municipal government, in co-operation with appropriate civic groups, on a continuing basis and utilizing all publicity media.



**WORKING CHILDREN UNDER 14 YEARS.**—Since 1930, the Census has not included children under 14 years either in its decennial count or its monthly samplings of the labor force. At the request of the Bureau of Labor Standards of the U. S. Department of Labor, two sample surveys of this age group were made in 1950—one in August, a vacation month, and one in October, a school month. It was estimated that over 1,000,000 children 10 through 13 years were employed in August and 719,000 in October. About half of these young workers, in both months, were working for pay. About 60 per cent were engaged in agricultural work. Those in non-agricultural jobs worked largely as newsboys, babysitters, domestic workers, and as helpers in retail drug and grocery stores. The most startling finding of the survey was that 86,000 child workers under 14 years were not enrolled in school in October. All but 4,000 of these were in agriculture, with the number about equally divided between unpaid family workers and paid workers.—*The American Child.*

**BRIEF SURVEY OF AUSTRIA'S SECONDARY-SCHOOL SYSTEM.**—At the start of the 1951-52 school year, Austria had a total of 169 secondary schools. To these was recently added a reconstruction secondary school in Lambach. During the 1951-52 academic year, the number of secondary-school students totalled 61,539, an increase of 6,391 (or 12%) over the previous year. Registration figures for the 1950-51 school year were 13% below the 1937-38 figures, but the 1951-52 registrations were only 3% below the prewar total. Attendance at the "Gymnasia," which before World War I was higher than attendance at any other type of secondary school, constantly decreased during the First Republic. Although Gymnasium attendance showed a slight upward trend after World War II, registration figures continued to remain below the 1937-38 level. On the other hand, attendance at the "Realgymnasia" has reflected a steady increase during the last few decades. In Austria, as well as elsewhere in continental Europe, the "Gymnasium" is a secondary school preparing students for the university. The "Realgymnasium" is a secondary school in which no Greek is taught and much attention is given to the sciences.

The proportion of girls attending secondary schools has risen sharply during the past forty years, as the following percentage figures indicate: 1912-13, 12%; 1919-20, 16%; 1931-32, 32%; 1937-38, 30%; 1946-47, 36%; and 1951-52, 36%.

Of the total number of secondary-school students, only 623, or 1%, were native to some other language than German, and 2,251 of the students, or 4%, were of foreign nationality. Their religious affiliation is reflected by the following percentages: 84% Roman Catholic, 12% Protestant, 1% Old Roman Catholic, and 3% without religious affiliation.—*Austrian Information.*

## BOOKS AND PAMPHLETS RECEIVED TOO LATE TO BE CLASSIFIED

ALLISON, H. D. *Dublin Days, Old and New*. New York 16: Exposition Press. 1952. 156 pp. \$3.00. This is the story of Dublin, New Hampshire. The author, after 80 years of living in New England and being a New Englander, describes the town, its mountain, Monadnock, and the people who have lived in that area—and the distinguished persons who have called it home. He writes with authenticity and fondness for the ways of the typical village which has remained much the same since the middle of the last century. His story has wider interest because it tells, also, of the numerous world-renowned people who have at some time made their home in Dublin—Mark Twain, Amy Lowell, and Admiral Byrd. Dublin is typical of a large section of our nation and its history. The volume contains unusual photographs, including a picture of Mark Twain never before reproduced. It is recommended by such eminent New Englanders as Senator Charles Tobey, President Emeritus Hopkins of Dartmouth College, and Dr. Claude M. Fuess of Phillips Academy in Andover.

ANDERSON, JULIE. *I Married A Logger*. New York 16: Exposition Press, 1951. 328 pp. \$3.50. This is primarily a personal account of the author's life in a logging camp as she tramped over icy trails, swatted the never-ending summer mosquitoes, or was chased by a bear. It is also an informal history of logging in Michigan, and an account of lumberjacks and their ways of living and dying. The author writes with the same pluck and sense of humor that carried her through the difficult times that saw a suicide in the camp, a forest fire threatening its existence, and her own painful spine injury from which she recovered only after a difficult course of treatment.

BALL, ZACHARY. *Swamp Chief*. New York 11: Holiday House. 1952. 212 pp. \$2.50. Joe Panther is a young Seminole who loves his job—a first mate's berth on a Miami charter boat that takes sportsmen deep-sea fishing. But when his tribe's old Micco, or leader, dies, Joe's father becomes chief, and Joe himself is next in line as Micco. Moreover, some of the Seminoles are still bitterly opposed to the white man, and Joe is caught between conflicting loyalties to his job and to his tribe. Working out his problems involves him in both responsibilities and dangers.

BALLARD, C. R. *The Military Genius of Abraham Lincoln*. Cleveland 2, Ohio: World Publishing Co. 1952. 264 pp. \$5.00. This book examines Lincoln's influence on the strategy of the Civil War and proves that Lincoln chose good generals and that he was an excellent, if completely unconventional, strategist. He was the first Commander in Chief in the modern sense, the first to exercise the kind of over-all command that was a matter of course in World Wars I and II. But whereas in subsequent wars the over-all strategy was worked out through conferences, Lincoln had no one to confer with and made his decisions by himself. He understood the higher strategy of war as a whole, and the author effectively demolishes the legend that the President was a politician, "whose bungling interference hampered the efforts of his generals and prolonged the war." If

one wishes to know something about one's own country," says Fletcher Pratt in the Preface, "it is often a very good idea to ask a foreigner what he thinks of it. He may not be quite as well informed as a native, and he may not have all his details straight; but the details he does have enable him to form a judgment unaffected by local prejudices and local controversies."

BERGENGRUEN, WERNER. *A Matter of Conscience*. New York 36: Thames and Huson, 2 West 45th St. 1952. 312 pp. \$3.00. This book brings a great modern German writer before the English-speaking public for the first time. In the European editions more than 500,000 copies have already been sold. The plot is set in an Italian city at the time of the Renaissance. We see the citizens living in terror under the despotic rule of a tyrant, a highly enlightened but Machiavellian figure who holds absolute power over his subjects and who believes in his own omniscience. One night a murder is mysteriously committed in their midst; in their efforts to find the murderer, the people are led into a labyrinth of plots and counterplots, of terrorism, temptation, and moral degeneration which threatens to engulf the whole community. The final climax is as unexpected as it is dramatic.

BUHLER, CHARLOTTE; SMITTER, FAITH; RICHARDSON, SYBIL; and BRADSHAW, FRANKLYN. *Childhood Problems and the Teacher*. New York 17: Henry Holt and Co. 1952. 384 pp. \$3.75. This book attempts to do three things: to give the teacher an understanding of the dynamics of behavior problems that he may observe, to determine by means of case examples what the teacher may achieve in various circumstances, and to describe the type of problem with which the teacher needs specialized assistance. The book tried to unite developmental and dynamic aspects which usually are held apart. The teacher's attention is called to the importance of understanding maturation and the earliest phases of childhood by examples of pre-school and babyhood in the introductory chapters. It is meant as a contribution to the understanding of the child growing up in the Western civilization and to the guidance of the teacher who wants to apply principles of modern psychology and psychiatry. While rooted in the Western culture of today, this book is international in the spirit of scientific psychological thinking about human needs and aims. The children who appear in the book come from many different countries and nationalities, although the American cases predominate. As the various listings show, care was taken to include children of all ages, from infancy up to seventeen. Both sexes are equally represented.

COLVIN, IAN. *Master Spy*. New York 36: McGraw-Hill Book Co. 1952. 296 pp. \$3.50. The author's account of the career of Admiral Wilhelm Canaris, Adolf Hitler's Chief of Intelligence, has the thrill of a spy story, the fascination of a detective yarn, and the value of an important historical document. The Admiral, it turns out, was not only one of Hitler's most trusted officers; he was also a secret ally of the British! From 1935 until late in 1944, Admiral Canaris directed military espionage and counterespionage for Hitler's Third Reich. Because of the secret nature of his work, the Allies knew little of him. Now it appears beyond doubt that this soft-spoken, eccentric, nondescript-looking little man betrayed Hitler at every opportunity. He sent secret emissaries to London and the Vatican

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during the war, and figured prominently in plans to overthrow the Nazi government and kill the German dictator. He helped to save the life of Winston Churchill by purposely bungling a scheme for his assassination. He supplied Hitler with misinformation about British coastal defenses. He betrayed Germany's invasion plans to the Dutch. He flew to Spain to persuade his personal friend Franco to stay out of the Axis and remain neutral. He warned Great Britain of the V-weapons to be launched from the French coast a whole year before the first one dropped on London. He encouraged the Italian government, in their dark days of 1944, to capitulate to the Allies. Had he received more help from the British government in 1939, says the author, Canaris might well have been instrumental in averting World War II. In the words of the author, "Could any man in like position have achieved more without being detected?"

- CRISP, FRANK. *The Haunted Reef*. New York 16: Cowan-McCann. 1952. 251 pp. \$2.75. Dirk and his young cousin Jim listened curiously to strange stories about the reef without putting much faith in them. The boys were partners and joint owners of the motor-lugger *Southern Cross*, with a salvage job to do on that reef, and certainly no outworn native superstitions would keep them from diving and attempting to locate a lost ship and a cargo of nickel Captain Kelly of the S. S. *Fiafia* wanted to recover. One deep dive through the treacherous waters proved to Dirk that the great hulk looming on the sea bottom was not the small island steamer Kelly had led him to expect. It proved too that Kelly and his crew were more to be feared than the strange terrors encountered on the sea bed. Kelly alone knew what treasure the wrecked ship had really carried.

- DANNER, S. K. *Gallery Tour*. Stanford, California; Stanford Univ. Press. 1952. 68 pp. \$5.00. The book includes four oil paintings and thirty-four poems by the author. The book is divided into four types of poems each introduced by a painting by the author. The four sections are Landscape with Figures (eleven poems), Portraits (thirteen poems), Landscapes (six poems), and Still Life with Flowers (four poems).

In the Foreword to *Gallery Tour*, William Rose Benet states: "Sara Danner is an artist, and her poetry reflects her love of palette and brush. A notable characteristic of her work is its exact observation. Another is the glow of color that one finds in it. It seems to me that she has evolved her own particular method of expression with a careful attention to phraseology that is never merely clever but is often most effective. She also writes vividly of the California scene in a manner all her own."

*The Saturday Review of Literature* has already recognized the quality of Mrs. Danner's work by including her poems in its pages from time to time. Now *Gallery Tour* gathers her work into a handsome book that preserves it for lasting enjoyment. It is not only a pleasing companion for a quiet evening, but also a source of delight for the shut-in, a distinguished addition to the library, and a welcome addition to any gift list.

- DAVIS, JEROME. *Peace, War and You*. New York 21: Henry Schuman, Inc. 1952. 282 pp. \$3.00. This book, written for the average citizen, is an attempt to give him a basic knowledge of our present world situation. From Chapter I through the final Chapter XV, this book presents questions and answers on our national and international policy. It is an effort to arouse Americans to assume the individual responsibility that our citizenship im-

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DEMING, DOROTHY. *Linda Kent, Student Nurse*. New York 16: Dodd, Mead and Co. 1952. 386 pp. \$2.50. Linda Kent was one of those countless girls who wonder whether they should become professional nurses. Her story starts in high school, tells how she tested her interest in nursing by aide service in her home-town hospital, then went on to a collegiate school of nursing, with all its joys and sorrows, its fun and friendships, and its serious challenges to a girl like Linda. At a time when our hospitals and public health agencies report a shortage of 65,000 nurses for civilian and military service, this book fills a genuine need: a book for high-school and college students which tells authoritatively, yet informally, what a girl needs to know and do to find a satisfying career in this essential profession.

FELSEN, H. G. *Two and The Town*. New York 17: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1952. 283 pp. \$2.50. This is the story of Buff and Elaine, set against the background of a town that might be almost any town in America. It is the story of their struggle to find some measure of happiness and acceptance in a situation that seems to them insoluble. It takes place when they are seventeen to eighteen—almost ready to be graduated from high school. The opening chapters present a stirring football game and the last ones tell of Buff's time of service in the Marines.

FIELD, A. E. *Hollywood, U. S. A.* New York 18: Vantage Press. 1952. 256 pp. \$3.50. Will H. Hays, in his Foreword to this book, says: "Mrs. Field tells, in easily read topical chapters, the story of a movie, 'From Script to Screen.' The book could well be called 'Inside Hollywood,' for she gives the reader a far better insight into that city of magic than he will ever get by a visit 'to the lot.'" The author has written the definitive account of how magic is achieved in that tinsel town, Hollywood, which has grown to house one of America's foremost industries. She gives you a complete picture of the process required in translating a story, or only an idea, into a visual delight. Along the assembly line you will meet the director, writer, actor, sound-man, designer, talent scout, and critic. Technicolor and animated films are explored. There is a complete list of Academy Award winners, including technicians, and a glossary of cinematic terminology. Every facet of the movie industry is evaluated and presented.

FLOHERTY, J. J. *High, Wide and Deep*. Philadelphia 5: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1952. 154 pp. \$2.75. We moderns are aware as never before of the importance of scientific understanding of sea, land, and air; of storms, tides, and currents, and of earthquakes and floods. In active conflict with these forces, the U. S. Coast and Geodetic Survey plays a role filled with



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FRANK, PAT. *Hold Back the Night*. Philadelphia 5: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1952. 220 pp. \$3.00. This is a Korean war novel. It is the story of the grim determination of Dog Company—a group of Marines and others.

FREEMAN, EUGENE, and APPEL, DAVID. *The Great Ideas of Plato*. New York 10: Lantern Press. 1952. 221 pp. \$3.00. This book is the first of a new series of books titled "The Library of Great Ideas" which are designed to offer the general reader a sampling of the basic teachings of western philosophy. It contains 29 extracts from 14 of Plato's writings.

FUERMAN, GEORGE. *Houston: Land of the Big Rich*. Garden City, N. Y.: Doubleday and Co. 1952. 255 pp. \$3.50. The fabulous Texas Metropolis called Houston is a modern-day Midas land which, according to Lloyd's of London, may bulge with three million people by 1980. From oil, real estate, cotton, cattle, shipping, and chemical industries, the inhabitants of Houston have accumulated such an abundance of wealth that philanthropy is a profession, and currency is as expendable as Kleenex. In this book, crammed with anecdotes and unusual facts, the author, long a newspaperman on the Houston beat, gives the inside story of every important phase of life in this incredible city.

GARBER, L. O. *The Yearbook of School Law, 1952*. Philadelphia 4: The Author, School of Education, University of Pennsylvania. 1952. 109 pp. \$2.25. This third volume of the second series of *Yearbooks of School Law* follows a design that was started with the *Yearbook of School Law, 1951*. In addition to reviewing what are considered to be the most important decisions of higher courts involving questions of educational interest that were decided during the past year (December 1950 through November 1951) it includes, in the Appendix, a detailed consideration of a single legal problem of timely interest—a digest of practically all cases that have been decided relative to legal aspects of segregation in public schools. The seven chapter titles are: Government and Education; School Districts and School Officers; Organization of School Districts; School Property; School Finance; Teachers and Other Certificated Personnel; and Pupil and Pupil Services.

GLOSTER, H. M.; FARRISON, W. E.; and TILLMAN, NATHANIEL. Editors. *My Life, My Country, My World*. New York 11: Prentice-Hall. 1952. 636 pp. \$3.60. Almost two thousand years ago the Greek philosopher Epictetus said: "If you wish to have a faculty for reading, read; if for writing, write." This doctrine, as valid today as it was at the time of its enunciation, suggests two of the basic aims of the editors in the preparation of

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Moreover, inasmuch as the selections are intended to stimulate thinking, speaking, and writing among college students, provocative study programs have been placed immediately following the readings. The typical study program is divided into five parts: (1) Questions of Fact and Opinion, (2) Suggested Propositions for Discussion or Debate, (3) Suggested Topics for Themes, (4) Words for Study, and (5) References to Identify. Stemming directly from the readings, the questions are designed to test the college student's comprehension of the selections, to point toward similarities and differences, and to promote original thinking and the desire for self-expression. Deliberately cast in controversial form, the propositions are planned to arouse interest in classroom discussion and debate. Loosely related to the readings, the theme topics are presented to encourage crystallization of points of view in writing. These topics, incidentally, are suggestive rather than restrictive; and the teacher can add others to suit his individual situation or require the student to provide his own. In order that good reading habits may be further inculcated, less familiar words and references have been listed for study. It is the authors' hope that the exercises following the readings will lead the student away from supine, flaccid acceptance of the printed word and toward intelligent, independent thinking and expression.

HERRIN, M. H. *The Creole Aristocracy*. New York 16: Exposition Press. 1952. 128 pp. \$3.00. This is a survey of the Creoles, the descendants of French and Spanish settlers in the New World, and of their contributions to our American culture. It is the story of the people who have given America such eminent figures as Audubon and General Beauregard, and who have made a lasting impression on the art, the folklore, and even the cuisine of the nation. Focused upon New Orleans and the Vieux Carre, the life of the Creole settlers built a center of gracious Latin tradition in the frontier society of early America. History tells us that the romantic legends concerning the Creoles and their extravagant sense of honor, their love of large living, and their habit for acquiring fabulous fortunes in doubtful enterprises, have their origin in fact. The Creoles of yesterday are everywhere reflected in the Southland of today, and the author's many photographs and sketches present the visible evidences of that still vigorous culture. Pictures of statues and monuments, and, in particular, photos of classic plantation homes, add their testimony to this absorbing chronicle of Creole achievement.

KEPLER, T. S. *Jesus' Spiritual Journey and Ours*. Cleveland 2, Ohio: World Publishing Co. 1952. 157 pp. \$2.00. Jesus' spiritual journey through

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KNIGHT, E. W. *Fifty Years of American Education*. New York 10: Ronald Press Co. 1952. 492 pp. \$4.75. Designed primarily for textbook use in college courses on the history of education, this volume is based upon research in the original sources to develop the facts about the tremendous growth of education in the United States from 1900 to 1950. The book appraises our educational progress during the half-century in the framework of the sweeping economic, political, and social developments with which it is interwoven. This book traces the growth and development of education in the United States during the first half of the twentieth century. It is portrayed as one aspect of the nation's economic, industrial, social, and political development, with which it was closely interwoven. Changes in the American educational scene between 1900 and 1950, and the extension of educational effort not commonly accepted when the century opened, are here delineated, analyzed, and evaluated. These developments form an extraordinary story of educational growth in a half-century that is unmatched in history. The author points out in great detail that the task ahead of education at mid-century is to do qualitatively what had been so well done quantitatively since 1900. Most of the material in this volume has formed the substance of courses given by the author. Throughout the book, an effort has been made to direct the attention of students and teachers to the historical antecedents of current education issues and problems, and to stimulate the study of the subject through the use of original sources. However, as one reads the sections on secondary education one is made to wonder how familiar the author is with the contributions that the National Association of Secondary-School Principals organization has made to this area of education.

*The Library of Great Painters, Portfolio Edition*. New York 14: Harry M. Abrams Inc. 421 Hudson St. 1952. 5 volumes, \$1.50 each.

Cooper, Douglas. *Henri de Toulouse-Lautrec*.

Lipchitz, Jacques. *Amedeo Modigliani*.

Rewald, John. *Paul Gauguin*.

Rich, D. C. *Edgar-Hilaire-Germaine Degas*.

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MAYER, H. C. *New Footprints of the Trojan Horse*. New York 3: Farrar, Straus and Young. 1952. 119 pp. \$1.75. This volume, a sequel to *Footprints of The Trojan Horse*, seeks to meet the current need to understand and fight the Communist threat. This book is purposely short and challenging so that the reader will not be lost in words. Its unique format designed for easy reading follows the same style already proven effective in *Know Your Isms* by Martin Dodge.

MELADY, J. H. *Better Lawns for Your Home*. New York 10: Grosset and Dunlap. 1952. 130 pp. Perhaps no gardening subject is of greater interest to the average home owner than his lawn. It is the most important factor in the landscaping of his house, the one feature noticed by every visitor. Yet, until now, there have been almost no good guidebooks for the average man who must care for his own lawn. Sections included are: How to Renovate Your Lawn; Lawn Troubles and How to Cure Them; How to Identify the Grasses in Your Lawn; Plant Foods and Care of the Lawn; and Fertilizers, Manures, and Soil Ingredients.

MICHELL, H. *Sparta*. New York 22: Cambridge University Press. 1952. 356 pp. \$7.00. The author describes the peoples who made up the State of Sparta, their constitution, their discipline "unequalled in severity in any other time or place," their system of land tenure, their military and naval organization, their money and public finance, and their practice of eating together in public messes. He also gives some account, in a final chapter, of their decline, and subjection to Rome.

MORRIS, GLYN. *Practical Guidance Methods for Principals and Teachers*. New York 16: Harper and Brothers. 1952. 280 pp. \$3.75. This book fills a serious gap in the field of educational and vocational guidance—the gap between knowing what needs to be done by the school in this whole area and how to do it where resources are not available for a specialized staff. The book is a former principal's frank, human story of his years of experience in working out a practical program of guidance in a smaller school where funds were limited. As Professor Strang of Teachers College, Columbia University, says in her Foreword, "It is a thoughtful and thought-provoking account of study and experience, of theory and practice. It is more than a story of what a principal did; it is a story of how a principal grew." The book describes in anecdotal detail the co-operative methods developed between principal and teachers, in working through group procedures, record systems, interviews, and case conferences. As a record of success in a difficult local situation, the account will be of help to all principals and teachers who are interested in developing a good guidance program without benefit of a specialized staff and a large budget.

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NEVINS, A. J. *The Adventures of Kenji of Japan*. New York 16: Dodd, Mead and Co. 1952. 287 pp. \$2.75. Young Kenji Tagai and his family live on a prosperous farm in the fertile Omani valley. He does his chores about the farm, goes to school where he becomes the *Kendo* champion and wins a trip about Japan on which he sees the famous sights of his beautiful country. Then disaster strikes Omani—a typhoon and flood. The farmers are destitute. Kenji's father loses his farm through a swindle and the family is forced on the road as refugees. They are reduced to living under a bridge in the city of Kyoto, and Kenji's older brother, Taro, is arrested and thrown into prison while trying to get food for his family. He emerges a Communist.

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OVERSTREET, B. W. *Understanding Fear in Ourselves and Others*. New York 16: Harper and Brothers. 1952. 256 pp. \$3.00. Here is a book grounded in modern psychology which digs down to the emotional roots of fear and thereby opens the way to understand, master, and cast out the fears that so often cripple our daily lives. "I have time and again found that man's problem has shaped up as a fear-problem," says the author, and to answer this human need for self-assurance and mutual confidence she has gathered here the scientific knowledge about fear which can be of direct practical help to every layman. The book is concerned not with the fears that are natural responses to danger, but with the unconscious fears that stem from emotional insecurity—the emotional barriers that alienate man not only from himself and others, but group from group and nation from nation. At the outset, the author identifies these irrational fears—often expressed in misleading disguises—and explains how they distort the individual's responses to others. Tracing them from their origin in childhood and adolescence, she demonstrates how these hidden fears block a mature approach to the adult responsibilities of work, marriage, parenthood, and old age. The book then goes on to show what the layman can do about the problem.

POTTENGER, F. M. *The Fight Against Tuberculosis*. New York 21: Henry Schuman, Inc. 1952. 288 pp. \$4.00. This autobiography of Dr. Pottenger highlights the fight against tuberculosis and his own part in winning the battle against one of mankind's greatest enemies—The Great White Plague. He also gives a remarkable panoramic view of the past seventy-five years—a fantastic period of constant change and manifold discoveries.

PREECE, HAROLD. *Living Pioneers*. Cleveland 2, Ohio: World Publishing Co. 1952. 317 pp. \$3.75. The Old West is legend—but what legend! It's the vivid, lively story of the men who panned the gold, who drove the great herds up the Chisholm Trail, who enforced the law or broke it—the good and bad men who made the West the rowdy, deadly, gallant place it was. Most of them are gone, but there are still a few of the old-timers left, and this is their story. Here among the hunters and hunted, the wranglers and

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ROSENTHAL, LEONARD. *The Pearl Hunter*. New York 21: Henry Schuman Inc. 1952. 220 pp. \$3.00. This book presents to the reading public something more than the exciting adventure story of a pearl hunter; something more than the rags-to-riches autobiography of the author, who moved from the nonentity status of a poor immigrant boy to become a powerful benefactor of his adopted country, France. It is a documentary record of a fabulous industry's meteoric rise and decline—the Oriental pearl industry. It is an authentic, firsthand account of how it was once possible to amass a fantastic personal fortune. For in less than twenty years, the author built a fortune of over \$100,000,000 and won the world monopoly of the Oriental pearl trade for France. He became one of the best known millionaires of Paris, a fabulous member of the financial world, a noted art collector, and philanthropist, and, for his work for France, he was made Commander of the Legion of Honor. He counted among his friends Anatole France, Paul Painleve, the Curies, and the Guitrys.

SARGENT, F. PORTER. *Educational Directions, A Report—1951*. Boston: F. Porter Sargent, 11 Beacon St. 1952. 132 pp. \$2.00. This book is reprinted from the 33rd edition of *The Handbook of Private Schools, 1951-52*. It surveys and comments on present trends. It contains chapters entitled: A Portrait of Porter E. Sargent written by A. B. Moehlman, Tributes to Integrity, a Bibliography of the Writings of Porter E. Sargent, the Abdication of Individual Initiative, the Art of Stultification, the Hunt for Academic Heresy, Are Private Schools Democratic?, the Mission of the Private School, and Opportunities and Responsibilities.

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*The Handbook of Private Schools, 1951-1952*. Boston 8: F. Porter Sargent, 11 Beacon St. 1952. 992 pp. \$8.00. This is a completely revised edition of the standard annual directory which critically describes and classifies private schools—primary, secondary, specialized, boarding and day schools, and junior colleges. Many new features have been added. The introduction includes a memorial to Porter E. Sargent and the 1951 report on educational directions in America. In "The Leading Private Schools" critical descriptive accounts of some 1200 schools are arranged geographically by states and alphabetically by towns and cities to bring neighboring schools together. In the section, "Schools Classified by Type," lists of representative schools are grouped according to different functions and characteristics. In "Illustrated Announcements," geographically arranged, schools, in their own statements, present their offerings to prospective patrons for ready comparison and choice. In the "Supplementary Lists" are schools not included among "The Leading Private Schools," which are largely of local patronage or about which fuller information is not available. The "Association Membership Lists"

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SHAW, LAU. *The Drum Singers*. New York 17: Harcourt, Brace and Co. 1952. 283 pp. \$3.50. This is the story of two families who practice the ancient Chinese art of drum singing—that perfect marriage of folk literature and folk music. When the tides of war approach Hankow in 1938, the Fangs and the Tangs flee from north China to the provisional capital in Chungking. There one meets Fang Pao Ching—thoughtful, sensitive, and a little bewildered—who is faced with many obstacles in keeping his drum-singing troupe together; Jeweled Lute, alluring daughter of the Tangs; Little Liu, who plays accompaniments on the three-stringed instrument; and Lotus Charm, Pao Ching's adopted daughter, childlike, naive, attractive, and appealing, who is baffled by the problem of growing up in a world where customs and conventions themselves are undergoing violent change. Lotus Charm is the central figure; her youthful search for someone to love, and her final rather rude awakening to maturity, form the framework of the book.

SIMONT, MARC; and SMITH, RED. *How To Get to First Base*. New York 21: Henry Schuman, Inc. 1952. 64 pp. \$1.00. This is a fan's eye view of the fun and excitement of baseball and a gallery of brilliant caricatures of baseball stars. Here are Campanella, Ted Williams, Connie Mack, Luke Easter, Carrasquel, Stan Musial, Kiner, Casey Stengel, Leo Durocher—to mention only a few of baseball's great. The text and captions are by Red Smith, while the pictures are by Marc Simont.

SKOLNIK, DAVID. *Dynamic Solid Geometry*. New York 3: D. Van Nostrand Co. 1952. 239 pp. \$2.48. In many cases, students begin their study of solid geometry after they have been away from plane geometry for a year and a half. In this book, the underlying concepts and methods of plane geometry are carefully reviewed. Important propositions are illustrated by figures in perspective, thus serving the double purpose of reviewing plane geometry and of introducing figures in general space. The material of this book is organized into large units instead of being presented a proposition at a time. From the student's point of view, the difficulty with solid geometry has been that theorems keep coming from apparently nowhere. The student either will not or can not organize these propositions into a whole. In this book, the five chapters are organized into thirty-six lessons, five of which are reviews. There are more than 1,400 graded exercises with emphasis on problems of interest to the average pupil. Summaries and tests are also included. Each lesson is a complete phase of a chapter. At or near the beginning of the lesson, the student is given a bird's-eye view of the unit and is led to expect certain necessary propositions and to appreciate their purpose. This, however, does not mean that the student will have to learn a unit that is too large for him; most of the lessons will require more than one day to complete.

SQUIRE, R. N. *Introduction to Music Education*. New York 10: Ronald Press Co. 1952. 195 pp. \$3.25. This volume is designed for the student preparing to teach music, the in-service instructor responsible for all or a part of



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STERN, J. D. *Eldolon*. New York 18: Julian Messner, Inc. 1952. 252 pp. \$3.00. At his city desk, Editor Trip, veteran of many newsbeats and some hoaxes, stared at the two photographs in front of him. One, captioned "Boyd West" pictured a quiet, intelligent new chess prodigy. The other showed the virile college athlete, Newt Muir, winning the world's quarter-mile track championship. But the handsome young men appeared to be identical! Twins? Another hoax? Reporter Sam Raleigh is assigned to investigate. And, pursuing what seems to be merely a picture puzzle, he uncovers a strange and seemingly impossible story—the story of a genius endowed with a body and a brain unspoiled by human weakness.

TEBBEL, JOHN. *Touched With Fire*. New York 10: E. P. Dutton and Co. 1952. 447 pp. \$3.50. In this novel, the author takes you striding by La Salle's side through the wilderness of Canada, discovering the mysterious wonders of the Great Lakes, traveling the weary, dangerous miles down the Great River to the Gulf, and struggling against the wiles of a beautiful woman, who loves him enough to destroy him. Your guide, the narrator of the story, is Philippe Brisson, handsome young Frenchman, who flees from a rich, but dull life, to seek adventure—and finds it from the moment he sets sail with La Salle for Canada on a ship whose cargo is sixty women, taken from a Paris orphanage to be sent as wives for the pioneers of New France in Montreal and Quebec.

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until the Mississippi, that fatal river which dominated his life, swept him and Philippe and Madeleine into a dilemma from which there was no escape.

- TUNIS, EDWIN. *Oars, Sails and Stream*. Cleveland 2, Ohio: World Publishing Co. 1952. 77 pp. \$3.50. This is a picture book and text which must inevitably find its way into the library of everyone who loves ships and the sea, who has labored lovingly over boat models, and who finds in the evolution of shipbuilding the pageantry and romance of the growth of civilization. The author knows and loves ships, and he has utilized his very special skill and knowledge to produce the beautiful, detailed pictures in this book. He has drawn the most interesting and important types of boats of which we have any record; they appear in chronological order and reveal, more clearly than any text alone could, each advance, each new principle incorporated into sailing vessels to make sailing and navigation easier and better.

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- VEEDAM, VOLDEMAR, and WALL, C. B. *Sailing to Freedom*. New York 16:

Thomas Y. Crowell Co. 1952. 254 pp. \$3.50. Excitement, suspense and humor fill the pages of this true account of the heroic voyage of the *Erma*, a thirty-six foot, seventy-year-old sloop which made a sea trip of 8,000 miles with sixteen men, women, and children aboard. It is also one of the most incredible sea adventures of our time—a tribute to the Estonian refugees who would risk such a voyage to escape Soviet oppression.

- WEINGAST, D. E. *Franklin D. Roosevelt, Man of Destiny*. New York 18:

Julian Messner Inc. 1952. 192 pp. \$2.75. This is the story of Franklin Delano Roosevelt, from his carefree childhood, his schooling, his romance, through the tragedy of his crippling affliction, to his election to the Presidency at a time of national distress. The picture of the White House years brings into focus the events that drew banner headlines in the thirties and forties, the New Deal laws that cascaded out of Washington and the spreading Fascist imperialism that exploded into World War II. Here is the essence of the path-breaking Roosevelt policies: CCC, WPA, TVA, Social Security, the struggle to revamp the Supreme Court. Here are America's reactions to the man in the White House, who was the "inspired leader of a virile democracy" to some and a "power hungry demagogue" to others.

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- WILSON, N. C. *The Nine Brides and Granny Hite*. New York 16: William Morrow and Co. 1952. 252 pp. \$3.00. Granny Hite, with her wise heart and wrinkled-apple face, is the perfect embodiment of a kind of earthy, unaffected American pioneer spirit. And around her central figure the author has grouped a wonderful array of hill people. There is Ellie Beckett, the wood-carving girl; Tom Swisher, maker of dulcimers and whiskey; Jay Gatlin, the bashful preacher who performed his own marriage ceremony; and so many more. As the story opens, romance has swept through the Hollow. New cabins and houses are going up fast, and so the women get together for a quilting bee to provide for all the new beds. As they sew, they talk. And through their talk the reader is led naturally into this fresh, cool mountain world.
- WINCH, R. F. *The Modern Family*. New York 17: Henry Holt and Co. 1952. 544 pp. \$3.90. It is a major thesis of this book that we are what we are, to a considerable degree, because of the nature of our social institutions. The family is a basic social institution. It is basic in the sense that we look to it for a variety of gratifications and that almost all of us do our earliest learning in the social context of the family. In the early and most formative years of life, the family has a monopolistic influence on the child. The organization of the book follows from this conception. Part One is intended to provide a general theoretical exposition of the family as an institution and to point out, rather than to explore completely, the range of its possible forms. Part Two acquaints us with the family in the United States, how the institution has changed, and the more important consequences of these changes. Part Three starts with a married couple and the advantages and disadvantages of their having children. Then the infant is traced through childhood and adolescence to adulthood.

### Pamphlets

- Addresses of Welcome to Arthur Stanton Adams*. Washington 6, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1785 Mass. Ave., N.W. 1952. 28 pp. On the occasion of his installation as president May 4, 1951.
- Administration of Public Laws 874 and 817*. Washington 25, D. C.: Supt. of Documents. 1952. 83 pp. 25¢. First annual report of the Commissioner of Education on disbursement of funds to districts needing financial assistance and to Federally affected areas.
- After Teen-Agers Quit School*. Washington 25, D. C.: Bureau of Labor Standards, U. S. Dept. of Labor. 1952. 30 pp. Free. The story of what seven cities did for boys and girls who, after dropping out of school, were baffled by the problem of finding and holding jobs.
- Curricular Offerings and Practices in California High Schools*. Sacramento, Calif.: State Dept. of Education. March, 1952. 122 pp. A compilation of information about programs of instruction in 1950-1951.
- East Meets West in Thailand*. Washington, D. C.: Mutual Security Agency. A brief account of Thailand's agricultural and industrial needs and the country's contribution to safeguarding freedom.
- Education and the Task Ahead*. Lexington, Ky.: Bureau of School Services, College of Education, Univ. of Kentucky. March, 1952. 144 pp. 50¢. A report of the October 1951 meeting of the Kentucky Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. Covers a wide range of topics.

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- Life Adjustment Education in the American Culture*. Washington 25, D. C.: Supt. of Documents. 1952. 95 pp. 30¢. Discussions and addresses of a work conference held in Washington, D. C., October 8-10, 1951.
- LINKLATER, ERIC. *Our Men in Korea*. New York 20: British Information Services, 30 Rockefeller Plaza. 1952. 79 pp. The story of the British forces in Korea.
- MCLEAN, J. E. *Politics Is What You Make It*. New York 16: Public Affairs Committee, 22 E. 38th St. 1952. 32 pp. 25¢. Inactive citizens rather than evil politicians are responsible for such incompetence and corruption as may be found in present-day political life.
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- The Psychological Cinema Register Catalog*. State College: Psychological Cinema Register, Audio-Visual Aids Library, Pennsylvania State College. 1952. 61 pp. Lists 238 films of interest to persons professionally concerned with psychology and psychiatry.
- Red Letter Days*. Washington 8, D. C.: Marketing Research Services, 2300 Conn. Ave., N.W., Suite 619. 1952. 16 pp. 35¢ each or 3 for \$1.00. Complete series of ten school months, \$3.00. Suggestions for class work, activities, programs, etc., for special days and weeks, occasions and holidays of each month of the school year.
- REED, BRANDON. *Why Smoke?* New York 11: Candida Press Inc., 132 W. 14th St. 1952. 6 pp. 25¢ each; 2-99 copies, 10¢ each; 100-999 copies, 7¢ each. Of three-minute reading length, these cartooned pages point out the dangers of smoking.
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(Continued from page 236)

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